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I

PSYCHOLOGICAL TESTS FOR COLLEGE ADMISSION

The problem of selecting from among those who present themselves for admission to college the candidates best qualified to profit by a college course and to make to society the best return on the venture of giving them a college training is perennial. Increasing numbers of candidates for admission to college and an increasing variety of motives actuating these candidates have made proper selection both more difficult and more important. Were college funds inexhaustible and college teachers innumerable something might perhaps be said for admitting every candidate who could present the minimum academic requirements, but in existing circumstances such a policy is impossible. The need of further selection has long been evident and a principle has quite naturally been sought in the excellence of the candidate's record in examinations or in school or in both together, tho we have long known that this alone was not fully satisfactory, since mere proficiency in secondary school work and in entrance examinations is not a true measure of excellence or even of mental ability.

The colleges have recognized the importance of character and promise at least to the extent of having some one—usually inknown—testify that the candidate is a person of good moral character; of late years some colleges have endeavored to get a more ample report from the school regarding the candidate's originality and promise and his strong and weak points of mind and character. Colleges

have sometimes given a little attention to the matter of health, one at least having gone so far as to require detailed health histories and detailed reports of medical examinations. This is an important matter and well worthy of increased attention.

On the whole, progress has been made in recent years in selecting the better candidates and further progress seems now to be possible.

Among the many things taught by the organization of the National Army are to be found methods of selecting men for special purposes. The army offered a field for trying out principles and practises which might otherwise have required many years for their proper investigation. For the student of the problem of admission to college the most significant of these methods was the psychological test, the test of general intelligence and alertness. As every one is now aware, tests for this purpose have been a matter of study and experiment for many years. Certain of the tests now employed were tried by Francis Galton Binet's classical attempt to formulate tests which would determine the "mental age" of children, and are so generally known—by hearsay at least — that the term Binet test is often used erroneously as synonymous with "test of intelligence." Tests of reaction time, association time, sensory discrimination and the like, have long been a commonplace in psychological laboratories, but the test of general intelligence is a much more complex and more difficult matter. If such a test can be used successfully, it should be of great value in selecting candidates for admission to college. The stupid boy who can be coached to pass ordinary college tests with the minimum passing mark is no fit member of a college—at any rate of a college that expends very much more on each student than the student pays in tuition. A good many stupid boys have succeeded in one way or another in acquiring degrees from reputable colleges. A reliable test of intelligence would have excluded them to the advantage of all concerned.

Is such a test possible? Reaction time and acuteness of

sensory discrimination are relatively simple phenomena not difficult to measure, but general intelligence is not. It is not a simple phenomenon and to attempt even to frame a definition which would be acceptable to all would be fruitless labor. Without trying to give an exact definition we may at any rate recognize the fact that intelligence implies the presence in some degree of the following: power of attention, memory, ability to discriminate among facts and ideas, range of information, recognition of relations, comprehension of a situation, the formulation of possible solutions of a problem and the selection of the best among them. In the tests which have been devised each question or problem calls for the exercise of certain of these capacities. They have been tried out on great numbers of subjects and have been accepted for use only when their results proved to be correlated with those of other means of estimating intelligence, such as the judgment of teachers and of fellows, success as students, and the like. In the case of the tests used in the army, those in officers' training camps who past the tests with grades of B or higher did not fail of qualifying for commissions; those who received only C failed in about 70 per cent of the cases; while those rated still lower were still less successful. The data published on the results of the Army Mental Tests would be conclusive of the value of such tests even if there were no other evidence.

There have been numerous popular articles on mental tests, but the general reader is still much in doubt as to their character. A few illustrations from a set which was used in testing candidates for one of the units of the Students' Army Training Corps may be of interest.

In this particular set—one of three given to the candidate—there were thirteen tests, each consisting of from five to twenty or more questions or problems. No one would attempt to say with finality precisely what each question tests, but it will be obvious that each tests at least one or more of the qualities enumerated a moment ago, and the examination as a whole is thoroly tried out before being

used. The questions were all printed and the candidate could answer each by putting down a letter or some other symbol. The time for each test was strictly limited, consequently the dull or muddle-headed student who might succeed with the earlier and easier questions in any set used up all his time upon them and was unable to answer enough to obtain a passing mark. Only the clear-headed, attentive, competent candidate could make a good score in the time allowed. Many of the questions contained absurdities. Uninformed and unsympathetic critics of mental tests have derived much satisfaction from these absurd questions. It does not require much perspicacity, however, to perceive that a boy who fails to detect a patent absurdity is not blessed with the most acute intelligence. Many questions involve carrying out a more or less complicated series of directions, calling obviously for attention, comprehension, memory and judgment at least. One of the problems in test one was as follows: In a square and a triangle partially overlapping, the student was directed to "make a figure 3 in the space which is in both the square and triangle and a figure 5 in the space which is in the triangle but not in the square." This was one of the easiest of the five problems in this test.

A second test employed what has been called the dissected sentence. Words which will make a sentence are put in a row without order. After each of these rows appear the words "true, false." The student is told to "look at the sentences. Think what a given sentence would be if the words were put in the right order. If it would be true, draw a line under the word true, if it would be false, draw a line under the word false." There were ten such sentences in the test. Another test called for the performance of simple arithmetical operations; still another for the solution of actual arithmetical problems. Another was a test of general information. The questions were from many different fields. Four answers were supplied for each question, the student being required to underline the one which made the truest sentence, as, for example,

"John Wesley was famous in—science—religion—war—literature."

One test, a modification of the well-known "opposites" test, called for the recognition of certain relations among pairs of words. If the two words of a pair meant the same or nearly the same, the student was to write the letter *S* after them. If they meant the opposite or nearly the opposite, he was to write *O*. Examples of the pairs are: austere—mild—, accurate—exact—etc. Another test, a simple test of judgment, consisted of a series of five questions for each of which four different answers were suggested, the student being instructed to make a cross before the best answer. For example, "Why do horses usually cost more than dogs? Because —Horses are larger—There are more dogs—It costs more to raise horses—Dogs are liked by children." The next test consisted of ten series of numbers, each number in a series being gotten in a certain way from the numbers coming before it. The student was to supply the next number in each series, *e. g.*, 12, 16, 22, 26, 32, 36, ...

The next called for the recognition of relations among words. In each line the first two words had a certain relation. The student was to note that relation and draw a line under the one word in the parenthesis which had that particular relation to the third word, thus: fin-wing: fish—(lion, swim, scale, bird); eye-head: window—(key, floor, room, door).

The tenth required the candidate to draw a line under the smallest number and also under the largest number in each of ten columns of ten numbers each.

The next consisted of a number of statements some of which might or might not be true and some of which could not possibly be true. The candidate was directed to put the letter *f* before each letter of the latter sort. In the twelfth test one of the two problems was as follows:

Fill in with conclusions which can be correctly drawn from the given facts in each set, shown in the first line.

	Given Facts	*Conclusions*
(1)	Z is thicker than X	therefore Y is.....thicker....than....V
	H is as thick as Z	therefore X is.....H
	V is thicker than H	therefore Y is.....H
	V is thinner than Y	therefore X is.....V
		therefore Z is.....Y

The thirteenth was a test of visual memory. A series of twenty figures and numbers was printed on a page and on the page following the same figures and numbers were reproduced scattered among some hundred others more or less similar. The candidate was directed to look at No. 1 on the first page long enough to get it in mind, then to turn over the page, find the same thing again, and write *1* under it. He was to proceed similarly with 2 and the rest. Some of the figures were geometrical designs; some were pictures of leaves, and so on. The numbers were all eight place numbers. This concluded the series. The candidate was given three series of tests similar to these.

The tests employed in Columbia College where a candidate whose record is satisfactory is permitted to substitute the mental test for the usual examinations is of a more advanced type and distinctly more difficult than that from which illustrations have been cited, but the principles employed are, in general, the same.

Before beginning the examination proper, the candidate is allowed to examine one set of tests (like that just discust) under conditions exactly similar to those to be followed in those which come later except that he is not required to answer the questions.

Then follow two sets very similar to the first and two others of a somewhat different type and distinctly more difficult. These tests were prepared by Professor E. L. Thorndike and are known as the Thorndike Intelligence Examinations for High School Graduates.

Such an examination should be employed not to the exclusion of other means for determining fitness, but along with them. Evidence of fitness should be sought in at least four different directions.

1. Preparation: The candidate should be required to present a record showing the completion with good grades in an acceptable secondary school of the full requirements for admission to college. If prepared by a tutor he should have past entrance examinations in all the subjects required for admission.

2. Character and promise: The candidate should file an application giving the usual facts as to birth, parentage and schooling, but also full information regarding his non-curricular activities in school, his out-of-school activities including employment, reading, work in organizations, and so on, and he should be required as a part of his application to write a letter telling his aims in going to college, his reasons for the selection of the college of his choice and his plans for the future. His principal should be asked for a report on various mental and moral qualities. The following form which calls for a judgment of whether the candidate is above or below the average in the given qualities might be used:

Put a cross (X) in the appropriate spaces to indicate the rating of the candidate in the several qualities.

	ABOVE THE AVERAGE			BELOW THE AVERAGE		
	Markedly	*Distinctly*	*Doubtfully*	*Doubtfully*	*Distinctly*	*Markedly*
Native Ability						
Industry and Faithfulness						
Originality						
Integrity						
Straightforwardness						
Clean-mindedness						
Fair Play						
Public Spirit						
Interest in Fellows						
Leadership						

REMARKS

I certify that the candidate possesses in my judgment the qualities listed above to the degrees there indicated.

I certify that he is a person of good moral character.

I recommend him as a young man of good ability, well prepared to do college work.

Signed _____

PRINCIPAL

School _____

3. Health: A full record of the candidate's health history and the report of a careful and detailed medical examination should be required both for the good of the candidate and for the guidance of the health authorities of the college.

4. Intelligence: There is no question that this is one of the most important factors and that it is insufficiently tested by any of the usual college entrance systems. The mental tests described in this paper supply a rational means for getting information on this point.

Those responsible for the method of admission employing them are confident that with intelligent administration the method will prove to be the best yet devised for selecting among candidates for admission to the freshman class.

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II

BUILDING ON A FUND OF SCHOOL HABITS

The first day of school has come and the graduate of the grammar school stands expectantly before the high school door, the goal of his dreams. He is about to enter the sacred portals of the school whose victories on the football and baseball field have inspired his boyish admiration, and whose fearsome "ologies" and "ometries" have awakened his awe. The teachers arrive without illusions as to what the year has in store for them, yet determined to do a better year's work on the new material than ever before.

In many ways, the entering class is the high school teacher's most promising field of effort. The upper class pupils have already made up their minds as to what they can expect from the teachers and what the teachers expect of them, have found their crowd, and have formed school habits that can be changed only slightly at best during the rest of the high school course. The first year pupil expects that he will have to change his ways considerably so that a direction from a high school teacher, even tho it is quite foreign to his previous school experience, is received without surprize. Then again it is a favorite time for good resolutions. Not all so-called troublesome boys are really satisfied with their school records, but, having acquired reputations as mischief makers, they sometimes feel that all the teachers are "down on them" and make no effort to pull themselves out of the rut. In the high school they feel that they can make a fresh start.

This side of the picture usually attracts the attention of the high school teacher in a greater or less degree, but there is another side. The grammar school graduate brings with him a large number of useful school habits that should be conserved. It should be noticed that the first-year boy has spent eight years with eight different teachers as well

as one or two principals, all of whom have tried, nearly always with success, to drill him in a satisfactory school deportment. To say merely this would be to tell only half the story. In most grammar schools, the teachers secure a degree of cooperation from their pupils that high school teachers hardly think to ask for from their first-year pupils. It may be a splendid way to cultivate humility in them to treat them like helpless infants, but it is poor pedagogy to permit so much of their training to become useless.

In a certain high school, it was found that there was no room in the main building for the freshmen, so they were placed in an annex by themselves. Here, instead of relyng on the upper-class boys for help, it was found necessary to call the freshmen into service. They responded eagerly, and, under the supervision of the teachers, did good work in helping to organize the school. Confidence in them has steadily grown in this annex. Formerly they were not thought capable of registering themselves; now under the guidance of the teachers, they do this with a great saving of time and with few mistakes. That they perform such work so well is no miracle. As eighth-grade pupils their principals and teachers in the grammar schools gave many of them considerable training as monitors.

It may be said with little or no reservation that the high school brand of discipline is itself to blame if the first-year pupils seem so irresponsible. In the grammar school they were required to file by rows from the room, and in lines thru the halls. Then on entering the high school, this is wholly done away with, without any transition period whatsoever. Now if psychology has shown anything, it has shown that when an individual's habits are abruptly broken off and training in other habits is not substituted, a period of disorganized activity results, that is to say, a period of disorder. This does not mean that the high school ideal of freedom thru self-control need be abandoned but simply means to emphasize the idea that pupils need training in the attainment of ideals just as much as they need training

for any of the ordinary school activities. There is no royal road here or elsewhere in school life.

A few suggestions may not be amiss as to how the transition may be made. Above all when a group of pupils are assigned to a home-room teacher for the first time, the teacher should insist on their filing into the home-room and that they be assigned even to temporary seats in some definite order. For instance, the first part of the file may take the row of seats nearest the windows, and so on. If first-year pupils are allowed to take seats at their own sweet will, there is apt to be more or less of a race for some of the seats and in any case disorder is sure to result so that the pupils get a poor impression of the teacher's discipline at the very start. In starting the pupils off for their first recitation in another room, they should be given a few simple instructions on how to pass from room to room without filing. What these instructions will be, depends largely on the size of the school and the plan of the school building. The writer has found it convenient to have the outgoing class pass to the back of the room and the incoming class come in at the front. If there is only one door to the room, the teacher should stand just outside the door and insist on having the former pass back of him, while the latter go in front. This prevents jamming at the door, a frequent cause of disorder where classes are large. It also causes both classes to file at that point giving the outgoing class an orderly start down the hall and breaks up any grouping of the incoming class.

Then finally, when the pupils are dismist for the day, it is advisable to have them file, especially in a boys' school, at the first of the year. Otherwise, the boys are apt to develop a burst of speed which would be more edifying to the track team captain than to the principal of the school. Conditions in a school may make it impossible to follow some of these suggestions, but they will serve as an example of how a transition may be made from grammar grade to high school discipline.

Above all, the high school teacher should visit the grammar

schools in order that he may know just what habits he may expect to find in the possession of his pupils. He will often find the solution of one of his problems in this way. For example, the writer found it difficult to make any profitable use of the quarter of an hour before the regular school day. He had suggested to his pupils that they look over the day's lesson but did not insist on this and permitted the pupils to converse, if they wished to do so, in a low tone of voice, until the opening exercises. This did not work well in his opinion. It required so much of his supervision that it interfered with his own school work. But the solution was not far to seek. He found that the grammar schools from which most of his pupils came had a regular assignment of work put on the board that the pupils were expected to do just as soon as they reached school in the morning. It was usually an exercise in arithmetic.

The next September he tried this scheme with his own class, starting it the very first day, as if it were a regular high school exercise, and for the rest of that year each pupil, after hanging up his hat, got out the necessary school materials, looked at the assignment on the board, and went to work without so much as asking a question. If a boy was very anxious to study a home lesson instead, he was permitted to do so. The writer has invariably used this scheme ever since. When his home-room class recited to him in some subject, he found that by assigning work before school in his subject and giving credit for the quantity as well as the quality of the work, his pupils aimed to get to school early for the sake of earning as much extra credit as possible and in this way tardiness was considerably decreased.

One other group of habits, acquired in the grammar school and requiring special attention from the high school teacher, may well be called the class laugh. A grammar school teacher informs me that it makes its appearance about the seventh grade. There are two varieties. One follows the rebuking of a pupil before the rest of the class and the other is heard whenever anything resembling a

joke bobs up in the lesson. Both of these have a natural origin and are to be found more or less all the way down the grades. It is when they become well recognized by the class as opportunities for disorder that they become especially mischievous. This happens in the last two grades of the grammar school, as a rule. By the time the high school is reached, every pupil knows the game well and most of them are ready to lend a hand or rather a hearty laugh. The grammar grade teacher may check the uproar by threats of physical punishment, which the pupils know she has the power of carrying out, but the high school teacher must use other tactics.

A sure cure for the laugh that follows rebukes is to eliminate the rebukes. Correction should be given privately. If it is absolutely necessary to give it before the class, the more quietly the better, and always without the least suggestion of sarcasm. The variety of class laugh following a more or less amusing incident must always be a problem to some extent, for there are some occasions when it is natural that the class should laugh. The only thing to be done is to avoid these occasions as much as possible. The teacher should seldom or never joke with a large class. When the teacher makes a joke, the class usually takes it for granted that it is a fine chance to laugh long and loud. If an irresistible temptation to laugh does arise, it is best to take it good naturedly and at the same time to keep an ear open for boys who are forcing the laugh beyond all bounds. Such offenders should be warned privately. Soon the class realizes that it has a teacher that knows his job and settles down to a year of work that does justice to their grammar school as well as to their high school training.

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III

SCIENTIFIC CIVICS

In conversation some time ago with the managing-editor of one of the largest American publishing houses of high school texts the principal of a western high school was lamenting that there is no textbook of Civics on the market which concerns itself in the least with the fundamental principles that rest at the base of the American state,—the soul that stands behind the government. "Well," remarked the managing-editor, "one of the reasons for publishing a textbook is that it will sell. In order to find sale a textbook must contain subject matter that can be handled by the teachers. It must be fool-proof. You are entirely right when you say that the Civics texts on the market do not deal with the principles of the state but merely with the machinery of the government, but that does not alter the fact that the text which should go to the root of the matter would not find sale because teachers could not teach it. Not one person in a hundred in this country, including the teachers, knows or apparently cares anything about the great principles and ideals that stand behind our government. These ideals belong to the world of the abstract things. Teachers, preachers and editors have difficulty in teaching abstract principles because they do not understand bridging over from the concrete physical world to the world of ideals; they do not understand how to cross the great gap between the government and the state,—between the machine and the force that makes the machine run. That is why there has been no teaching of Civics in our schools and that is why there is no Civics text on the market."

But was the managing-editor right in his conclusions? Are teachers generally unable to grasp the fundamental principles of this American Nation, and are they conse-

quently unable to instruct the youth of the land in those principles? It is more than likely that these questions have to be answered in the affirmative. It will do little good, however, to indict the teacher. It is probably better to point out what the science of civics seems to include and allow each teacher to draw his own conclusions as to whether or not he has been digging down to the bedrock in teaching this important subject. It is nobody's fault in particular and yet everybody's. And now especially, with radicalism sweeping the avenues of the world, it is everybody's business—this matter of knowing the stuff whereof our nation is made.

a. THE SCOPE OF CIVICS

The science of civics involves all other sciences; it involves knowledge from every other department of human activity and discovery. It can be nothing short of the abject carelessness resulting from an indifferent ignorance to fail to apply the known facts of the great branches of human learning and understanding to one of the greatest of the fields of human activity,—the state and the government. Just as it is utterly impossible to speak intelligently of yeast without knowledge of bacteria so it is also impossible to know the state unless one also knows something about the great natural laws of the physical and animal worlds that direct the activities of humans. Civics is essentially the science of collecting humans. To neglect the forces of nature that operate upon man from without, to overlook animal instincts, to fail to see the effect of the trained mind on the state,—to be thus negligent when teaching civics is equivalent to teaching physics while leaving out heat, mechanics, electricity, sound, light or any other of the fundamentals of physics. There is a science of state. There are as definite laws operating in this field as in the field of any other science. A civics course which does not recognize these laws—the causes that stand behind results—is not civics at all but a makeshift that parades under that guise. All sciences have past thru this stage of child-

hood. It is now time that civics took its place beside the other sciences of the schools and colleges.

b. CIVICS AND THE PHYSICAL SCIENCES

Upon every hand man is confronted and surrounded by great natural forces and powers. But fire, water, storms, continents, oceans, rivers and a thousand other factors of the natural condition that make up the world around us seem pretty definitely to have fallen beyond the scope of the civics texts of the past. And this despite the fact that these are grim, unconscious forces that from the beginning of time have held more or less complete control over the actions of man. They have had much to do with the making of a living, with the creation and separation of races of men, and with the whole scope of man's activity. And they have had much to do with the kinds of governments and other institutions that have been set up by man. Of course, as we shall see soon, there are other kinds of forces that have to be reckoned with too. The fallacy that must be corrected soon is that which has caused civics teachers in the past to assume that these great forces of the physical world have nothing to do with civics. It is, however, probable that these forces have not been so much consciously excluded from the field of government as that they have never been recognized as belonging in that science. What we have failed to see is this: The presence of these physical forces has made of man a struggling creature; and this struggling has caused him to develop his institutions and has had much to do with their growth. It wasn't because of choice, for instance, that the caveman lived in a cave alone with his family any more than that it is choice that causes the bear of the mountain to seek out a den for the winter. The caveman knew no mastery over the elements of nature. Since his day of long ago man has grown in knowledge and perception and now many of those natural forces are his servants. It has been precisely because these external forces have prest in upon man that man has prest out against them. So has man's activity

been directed. It may be that after a while these forces will be completely servants to man but they can not yet be scientifically neglected as masters and directors. Even when that day comes, if it ever does, man will merely turn these forces to his use in government and in other of his institutions. He has done this in the past, he is doing it now, and he will likely do it in the future. That being the fact we can not neglect these when making a study of the fundamentals of human civics.

c. CIVICS AND THE ANIMAL INSTINCTS

Men fight, they get angry, they get jealous, they are selfish, they love, they hate and they do a great many other things that concern the state and the government. A great part of these actions rise directly out of the world of animal instincts. Just as there is a great set of forces that react upon man from the outside so there is a second great set of forces that are locked in the breast of every human, and react upon man from the inside. This second group of forces means great human conflict—strife between individuals and strife between collections of individuals. Fights and wars are not mere accidents. Civics involves this second group of forces because law, too, is not merely accidental. Law and the rules of order arise precisely because of human strife. They represent man's conscious effort to eliminate human strife. Surely this is content for civics. Has the man who slays another in a fit of anger or jealousy, or the nation which enters upon the path of world empire because of national selfishness, nothing to do with human civics? Has the carelessness of the ordinary American citizen no effect upon our national existence? And yet these actions or lack of actions have much in common with animal instincts. From the earliest times to the present these animal internal forces have played eternal havoc with state and government. So important are these in the study of civics that one might almost say that were they absent there would be no need for government and the state.

d. CIVICS AND MENTAL FORCES

One might easily understand how carelessness could have caused civics teachers to fail to grasp the significance of nature's external forces and the forces of the animal instincts,—these are usually thought of as separate from man,—but it is difficult or see how the force of the human mind could have been neglected in this connection. Even the most superficial student knows that it has been the application of the human mentality to the world of physical things which has resulted in the marvelous mechanical development that marks this age from all other ages. And we know, too, that law, courts, legislatures and the other departments of government have long been engaged in an endeavor to control the animal instincts within man. But, even in the presence of these facts, we have failed to grasp that as the mind has gradually gained mastery over the two great groups of forces, a higher form of government has become possible. Indeed, if we mean anything by education at all, we must mean that the properly trained mind knows how to master the forces of external nature and the instincts. If the Peace Conference meant anything it surely meant that the human mind was endeavoring to master the great national instincts that in the past had led to great human strife,—national hatred, jealousy, and selfishness. But, let us interpose once more, the Peace Conference had very much to do with human civics.

It is thus that we abide the time when civics shall become a science,—when all the forces that enter into the study of civics shall be definitely included in that study.

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IV

THE WAR AND WORLD LANGUAGES

It is true as well as trite that the world is daily shrinking in size, tho geographers and geologists may grant no warrant for such a statement. The war just ended has done much to aid the shrinking process. Messages are flashed around the world in the time it takes to compose them. So contracted and interrelated is this once extensive and disjoined world of ours that today's victory of American, French or British soldiers in some remote village of France affects tomorrow's markets or industrial plans in Sydney, Valparaiso, Tokio and San Francisco. An outrage done against humanity in Belgium or Petrograd awakens burning indignation in the next few hours in the hearts of men and women thruout the civilized world. Our neighbors reside in Bombay, in Cairo, in Algiers and in Rio de Janeiro as well as in the next street.

War with its train of grim sacrifices has not been an unmixt evil. One of its beneficial by-products may be termed the realization of the community of interest of all mankind—community of interest in matters financial, commercial, spiritual and even political. The Kansas farmer, the Chilian miner, the French banker, the English laborer and the New York manufacturer or exporter, as well as the leaders of thought and society, realize keenly these days that we are all "in the same boat," and it behooves none to try to rock it, and that it befits each one aboard to contribute to his utmost to its safe navigation, the more so that the waters are now peculiarly troubled and the shoals dangerous and frequent.

The message in French that in twenty seconds winged its way from the Eiffel tower to Arlington may require twenty minutes for translation into English. German words taken from the air could not be used to the profit

of the Allied armies until they were couched in French or English. The community of interest of the nations is no longer hindered by space or time in these days of wireless telegraphy and telephony and of swift ocean-conquering airplanes. It is, however, considerably hampered by the difference in languages that prevail in the earth.

Were there but one language used by all human beings, is it not right to suppose that progress in social and intellectual life, as well as in the commercial or industrial world, would be more rapid, more certain, more satisfactory? But the one language Utopia—if such it were, did it exist—has not arrived and possibly will never come. The barriers of language will continue to prevail to some extent probably forever.

Yet it would seem that out of the linguistic chaos of the past a rather startlingly rapid dismantling of the tower of Babel has taken place during the past five tremendous years of human history. And this change, which seems, on the whole, to tend to elevate in importance certain languages and depress others, may be outlined as follows: (1) The reduction of German in importance, (2) the marked enhancement of English and French, (3) the realization of the growing importance and immense potentialities of Spanish and Spanish-speaking nations, and (4) the rise of a few languages hitherto given little consideration—Czech, Bohemian, Chinese and Russian.

German civilization has been discredited for many a long year to come. Tho the new Germany rise again commercially and industrially and even financially, she will for at least a generation (probably two) be an outcast for her sins, for her perverted philosophy of life that led her to prize might above right and to place trust in devious cunning rather than in open-handed justice and decency. Of course, whether German ever again approximates its former position in the linguistic world depends upon the acts of Germany in the near future.

And until Germany repents, restores, reforms and does penance she will continue to be the pariah of the nations.

And let our faith be cautious in her much protesting, in her profest reforms. Her sickening self-pity and her obsequious fawnings are as yet naught but expediency and not the fruits of repentance. Have not five dreadful years yet sufficed to teach us the perfidy of German oaths, German disregard of human life, scorn for the weak and resort to deception? Where yet is visible the slightest sign of her repentance, without which a change of heart is impossible?

We and other peoples shall do business with Germany. Her ships will dock at our wharves. Our importers and exporters have already opened up old channels of trade. But we shall instinctively eye her askance, for hers has been no uncommon crime. Her commercial genius no longer awakens in us admiration or fear. Our fear of her is when she comes "bearing gifts"—and selling coal-tar products or children's toys. And her language we shall use only as we are compelled to use it to a limited extent to do business with her, and in the manner in which we might use vigorous street slang as a last resort to bargain with a tricky cabman in his own vernacular.

In commerce it is not the languages of our competitors which we need to know so much as it is the languages of our clients. Our chief clients from now on will be those who speak Spanish, French and English. Also, let it be remarked, our competitors in this world trade will be those who speak English, French and Spanish, much more than those who speak German.

An American professor of German recently stated that he should much regret to see American youths deprived of the opportunity to know thru study in college courses "the older and worthier German literature." The American people and most of the world managed to get along uncommonly well without much German Kultur of any kind during the war. And there are so many other types of foreign culture that the world may draw upon which are not soiled by the trail of the serpent of Prussianism and which on analysis do not reveal a mixture of 20 per cent

culture and 80 per cent propaganda! The president of the German-American Alliance said in 1915:

> We will not permit our Kultur of two thousand years to be trodden down in this land [the United States]. Many were born here and are giving our German Kultur to the land of their children.....Let everyone be strong who steps forward and battles for German Kultur. Let him be strong and German. Consider, you German people, that we are giving this people here the best thing that there is on earth—German Kultur.

We, and the world in general, declined in unmistakable fashion such offers and did not even trouble to return thanks therefor.

This Kultur, prized tho it be still by some professors in American universities, has no longer any attraction for the American citizen, even for him of the most inquisitive turn of mind or for him of the intellectual élite. President Guth of Goucher College said:

> Germany has so influenced our own scholars and given them such a twist mentally that they have been unable to see how favorable they have been to ideas and opinions purely German.

In scientific circles the myth of superiority of the science written in German has been dissolved. France, England and America have made such strides in chemistry and other sciences since the war that there will be very small need in the future of scientific works written in German. Translations into English and French will be made of those few scientific and technical books written in German that may be needed. In this connection the words of President Humphreys of the Stevens Institute of Technology will bear repeating:

> It is high time that we recognized the weakness of the arguments which have been advanced in America for years past as to the special technical value of the German language; and this point can be emphasized by a fully justified dissent from the opinions, too often exprest by American educators, that Germany has led all other nations in original research and invention. While it is true that Germany has been persistent and industrious in taking advantage of the initiative of other nations, she has not been eminent by comparison in the discovery of nature's truths.

But, it will be said, you can not wipe out a nation of 60 million people, you can not take German from their mouths and from the mouths of several million people

who made up the Austria that was, and put in its stead some other speech. No. There is no way to do this unless we use the methods employed by the Prussians in Alsace-Lorraine from 1871 to 1918. These millions will continue to speak German among themselves and, to some extent, in the marts of trade where they may penetrate. But the German language will never again occupy its former place as the predominant language studied in America, England and France.

There are those who would have said in 1914, and even in 1917, that these same millions could not be isolated from the rest of the world and confined like ravening wolves behind walls of steel. Yet it was done. Right did restrict apparently superior might. And the nations will continue to restrict behind invisible but real barriers of distrust those same people.

Tho England has indicated the necessity of the continuation of the study of German in her schools[1] (under English-born instructors) it is chiefly from the standpoint of self-protection that she has done so, and because of her geographical propinquity to Germany, both of which factors are far more compelling in England than in America.

The war has greatly enhanced the value and importance of English. The two great English-speaking nations of the world, the United States and England, saved France and the civilization of which she is the outpost, from destruction. France was an armed camp of English-speaking soldiers, soldiers from the "tight little isle," from the wide dominions of Canada, Australia and South Africa, from Oregon and Arizona, Tennessee and Manhattan, Maine and California, all speaking the common tongue which England gave to the world.

Alan Seegar and Rupert Brooke, Colonel McRae and Joyce Kilmer, Philip Gibbs and Floyd Gibbons sang the aspirations and pictured the pathos and the humor of those

[1] See *Modern Studies*, being a report of the committee on the position of modern languages in the educational system of Great Britain, London, His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1918; section 61.

who fought in the trenches of France with English jests and English prayers on their lips. Their words were read by millions whose mother tongue they used, the tongue that Shakespeare immortalized.

English law, poems and tales in English, works in science in English, commercial terms and documents in English are more widely diffused thru the world than are those same things exprest in any other language. No language is so rich and varied, so adaptable and vigorous as English; no literature so nearly inexhaustible in its wealth and variety as the literature written in English. If culture alone is what we seek, that exprest in the English language will suffice.

English is spoken in all the ports of the world—in Bombay and Shanghai, in Buenos Aires and Guayaquil, in Rio and Hamburg—because the merchant fleet and the mercantile enterprise of England have made English necessary to thousands non-English in their speech. And the rapidly increasing mercantile marine of the United States and the fast-growing international banking facilities provided by American institutions will serve to double the frequency and the importance of English in the channels of trade. No language is so well equipt as English in ready-to-use, terse, exact business terms.

England in India and in her countless other dependencies, and the United States in the Philippines, Hawaii, Guam, Porto Rico and the Canal Zone have spread the Anglo-Saxon speech more widely than any other language has ever been spread. The prestige of American and English armies and navies lend heightened interest in all the world to the common language of those countries.

The Government of the United States thru its Committee on Public Information, the Committee on Emergency in Education of the National Education Association, and many other powerful agencies have labored ceaselessly to make this a country of one language—English. It is now universally conceded that no foreign language should be taught in our public schools below those of the grade

of the Junior High School. The war brought about this point of view.

English has been learned to a great extent by many of the people of France under the duress of the war. Many soldiers of English speech have married French wives and will settle in France. They will, of course, retain and spread their interest in and knowledge of English.

English and French were the two chief languages of the Peace Conference and in these two languages the records thereof were kept and in them the final draft of the proposed treaty was exprest, each version having equal value with the other. English has at least become the equal of French as the language of diplomacy.

If any language has ever approximated universality that language is English, and to judge from all portents it will increase in importance as the years pass.

French has likewise been greatly enhanced in importance by the war tho not to the same extent, it would seem, as English. There is but one nation (of 40 million) of importance in the world, for which French is the national language. But millions without the confines of France read, speak, write and think in French. French has been for centuries the language of diplomacy, the language known and used by cultured people—of Russia, Germany, the Scandinavian countries, and many other lands, some of them far removed from France but influenced by her culture and her spirit. Out of the melting-pot of the war the French language, as well as the French people, has emerged to a new lustre, to a new esteem and usefulness. The old slander that France was degenerate has forever been buried. The world stands with bowed and reverent head before France for what she is as well as for what she is now known always to have been, one of the spiritual leaders of the nations.

He who has mastered French has thereby acquired an ability in the expression of thought, no matter what his native speech, that he otherwise would never have had. Precision, clarity, conciseness and directness coupled with

elegance are the qualities that have to a good measure become his because of his knowledge of French.

Not only did English-speaking soldiers stimulate in France the study of English, but many of them brought away with them such a fondness for the French people and the French language that they will have an immeasurable influence in their home communities in encouraging there the study of French. There are hundreds of young officers who enjoyed the opportunity to study in the French universities for several months thru the generosity of those universities and of the United States Government. Many young women of France are studying and teaching in the colleges of the United States, thanks to the provisions made by the French Government and American universities. There has been in effect for some years an interchange of professors between American and French universities and this interchange will doubtless be perfected and extended.

That there should be this interplay and cooperation between the educational systems of France and this country, and this interest in each other on the part of the peoples of the two nations is most fitting. That the two great republics of the world have much in common was made most strikingly clear by the war. That the French language, French literature and French ideals have been in the past far too much neglected in the United States (and in England) is more than evident.

The members of the British Committee that made the report on modern languages to which reference has been made, were unanimous in giving first place to French among the modern foreign languages to be taught in British schools. (See British report, Section 60.) Contact with and appreciation of the French was delayed in England as much as in the United States, due, in both countries, to the belief carefully encouraged by the advocates of German that those who spoke German possest a civilization and culture superior to that of France. Moreover, the English have now given due importance to the geographical propinquity of France to England.

Thus one sees effected by the war a good portion of the plan advocated as far back as 1901 by Michel Bréal, according to which a *traité linguistique* should be concluded between France, England and the United States providing for the obligatory teaching of English in France and French in England and America.[2] Thus the two languages would become the means of communication between 180 million people.

No treaty to this effect has ever been negotiated and probably never will be, both because it is now unnecessary and because from the point of view of the United States it is not altogether desirable to impose French as the first foreign language to be studied here. There is, in the opinion of the writer, another language which should have fully as much attention in our schools as French, namely, Spanish.

Spanish has become a language of world importance. In England, France, Germany and the United States there has been aroused, in the past five years, a realization of this fact, especially in relation to commerce. Before the war, Germany trained thoroly in the use of Spanish her commercial agents she sent to Spanish America. She was more enterprising than any other nation in that respect. In the British report, section 62, we read: "Of the four languages (German, Italian, Spanish and Russian), Spanish has perhaps the greatest commercial import owing to the size and wealth of the Spanish-speaking communities of Central and Southern America;" and the British ignorance of Spanish is emphasized and lamented.

In France the Minister of Public Instruction was recently interrogated in the Chamber of Duputies as to what provision was being made for the study of Spanish in the schools of France. He pointed out the highly organized courses of Spanish in the universities of Toulouse, Montpellier and Bordeaux, which, however, during the war

[2] *Le choix d'une langue internationale*, La Revue de Paris (1901), Vol. 4 (juillet-août), p. 229–346. Cf. also Vol. 5 (1901), p. 216–224, Objections a M. Michel Bréal par Léon Pollack, auteur de *la Langue Bleue*, and Réponse àux objections, par M. Bréal.

were not attended by many students because so many had been called to the colors; that the University of Paris has decided to transform the Spanish work into a department of the first rank, and that in it would be established many new courses in language and literature; that in the secondary schools of southern France every possible opportunity was to be given for the development of courses in Spanish; that a large number of students were enrolled in such courses in thirty of the lycées of France; that whenever the administrative council of a lycée sought of the Department of Public Instruction the creation of new chairs in Spanish, careful attention was always given to the request; that the Superior Council of Public Instruction is of the opinion that candidates for the bachelor's degree should be allowed to present Spanish as their principal foreign language, without prejudice, however, to the study of English; that in the interdepartmental normal schools of Lot and Garonne instruction in Spanish has been substituted for courses in English; that the municipality of Moissac has voted the necessary credits for the support of instruction in Spanish as the second language (first foreign language?) in the girls' high school there; that as an experiment Spanish is being taught in several primary schools of the southwest and the experiment will be continued.

In the United States Spanish is now second only—and a close second—to French in point of numbers of students.

The United States Section of the International High Commission, the Commissioner of Education of this country, the Pan-American Union, and other important agencies have urged repeatedly the wider teaching of Spanish in the educational institutions of the United States. As an indication of the attitude of authorities one may quote Mr. McAdoo, who, when Secretary of the Treasury, said:

> The teaching of Spanish should be made compulsory in our public schools, in fact, a resolution was unanimously adopted by the International High Commission at Buenos Ayres recommending to each government that in all schools supported by public funds the study of English, Spanish, and Portuguese should be obligatory.

Spanish was once a world language of more importance than any other. Time was when Spain was mistress not only of much of Europe but also of vast new lands which her enterprise had discovered and colonized. In the sixteenth century Spain was the greatest commercial and colonizing power in existence and Spanish was as desirable and necessary as is English today.

"From the Spanish Philips to the Philippines" is a term that would delineate the period in which Spain decayed. She had attempted too much even for her great strength and finished by doing badly what she attempted, especially in the field of government. Her great overseas possessions slipt one by one from her failing hands. She did not profit as did England by her mistakes in dealing with her subjects. Her statesmen drove her blindly on to alienate even the children she had borne in the New World. Spanish dropt from the list of world languages.

But the eighteen daughters of mother Spain have been, in great measure, the cause of the rehabilitation of Spanish in importance as a world language. The whole world is taking into careful consideration once more Spanish civilization as manifested in Spanish America and, to a lesser degree, in Spain. Even before the recent war began, assiduous court was being paid to the likings and necessities of the peoples of the Spanish-American republics whose purchasing power was growing daily.

Then the war came. England and France were hampered by home needs from their usual participation in the activities of Spanish countries. Then was the golden opportunity of the United States which we grasped, at first slowly, then later with avidity. The war being now ended, the nations will vie with each other to the utmost point of their strength in selling goods to Spanish America and in acquiring there a huge supply of raw products. An army of commercial agents from many countries, seeking to replenish exhausted stocks of food, will descend upon these Spanish-speaking lands, and those who carry off the prizes will be the ones who, other things being equal, are able first

of all to treat with these people in their own language—Spanish.

From the commercial point of view Spanish is, beyond dispute, again a world language. And let none despise a language because of its practical value. That value provides a most sound basis for the study of a language. But at the same time let none assert that this is the only value that Spanish has; above all let him refrain from such a statement who has made no serious study of Spanish literature of the past and present.

The greatest novels of the recent war by common consent are known to be those written in Spanish by a Spaniard, Vicente Blasco Ibánez. They are *Los cuatro jinetes del apocalipsis* and *Mare nostrum*. Most Americans have now at least two names in their list of Spanish authors—Cervantes and Blasco Ibánez. Some day soon, when the old tradition is fully revised that taught that only French and German literature held anything of value for Americans, the educated public will know and appreciate duly the magnificent work that Spain and Spanish America have done and are doing in lyric poetry, in the drama, the literary essay, the short story and the novel. The world is beginning now in the after-war days to grasp the truth of what America's greatest living critic and man of letters, William Dean Howells, said in 1915:

> Take the instance of another solidified nationality [having previously mentioned the Germans], take the Spanish, and you have first-class modern fiction, easily surpassing the fiction of any other people of our time, now that the Russians have ceased to lead.

In Spain, Espronceda, Campoamor, Núnez de Arce, Antonio Machado, and Juan Ramón Jiménez; Echegaray, Tamayo y Baus, Martínez Sierra, and Jacinto Benavente; Azorín, Emilia Pardo Bazán, Juan Valera, Fernán Caballero, Alarcón, Palacio Valdés, Pérez Galdós, and Pío Baroja; in Spanish America, Rubén Darío, Amado Nervio, Santos Chocano, José Enrique Rodó, and many others, have produced some of the best literature of recent times. For literary and cultural purposes Spanish is again among the list of world languages.

For North Americans at least Spanish is a world language (the world of the Western Hemisphere) in its political aspect. Many of the Spanish-American republics were founded in frank imitation of our own. Their ideals are the same as ours, their hopes are identical, their lines of progress parallel if not convergent. Their educators visit us frequently these days, their newspapers have offices in New York. Associated Press dispatches are now supplied to the leading dailies of South America, suspicion of us has been largely dispelled, our leadership in the Americas will apparently be fully recognized in the results of the Peace Conference. How much more effective will be our rôle of big brother to Spanish America when our citizenry understands the Spanish language, knows something of Spanish literature and therefore appreciates the point of view of our Spanish-speaking sister republics! If the members of the British Committee felt the compulsion of geographical propinquity in recommending the study of French and German in England, how much greater importance does that factor have in our country in determining us to give to Spanish a place equal to that accorded to French in the curriculum of our schools and colleges!

Spanish civilization has been spread more widely thru the world than any other except the Anglo-Saxon. It may be said without much exaggeration that the sun never sets on countries of Spanish speech. There is in history no instance parallel to that seen in the case of the eighteen Spanish republics, all descended from one nation, Spain, and all animated by the best of the traditions of Spain and yet cherishing in addition the democratic ideals of the new world. If France and the United States are the two leading republics of liberty in the entire world, the United States and the eighteen republics of Spanish speech are the living, actual exponents of democracy in the Western Hemisphere.

Of other languages that have come into greater prominence as a result of the war, one can as yet hardly foresee the part they will play. Czech, Slovak, Bohemian, Ruman-

ian, Russian, where do they stand? Their importance will depend entirely upon what happens in the countries, old and new, where they are spoken. Russian, Japanese and even Chinese would provide certain advantages were they not so difficult to master by one who speaks English or French. Portugese and Italian have each been augmented in importance because of the roles played in the war by Brazil, Portugal and Italy, but neither has any of the aspects of a world language at the present time. Esperanto and other artificial languages are doomed to failure. Languages are not made to order and foisted upon any considerable portion of the people. A language is the product of centuries of growth.

German, then, is under an eclipse that will continue, English is in the ascendency, and French increasing in importance because of the rejection by the non-German world of things German, but more especially because of the vindication and proper glorification of things French. Spanish is rapidly being reinstated as one of the world languages, for reasons commercial, cultural and political.

I close with a plea for a more practical and thoro teaching of French and Spanish in this country, for smaller classes in high schools (with a maximum of thirty) for better preparation of teachers thru the establishment of special modern language schools in the universities and more use of the spoken language in university classes, and thru the granting of the sabbatical year to modern language teachers by boards of education and boards of trustees. Until teachers are enabled by school and university authorities to study abroad one year in seven at the expense of the institution in which they instruct it will be impossible for them to equip themselves to teach with the insight, enthusiasm and power that the times demand.

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V

THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL IN EUROPEAN SYSTEMS

One of the anomalous features of the American system of education, organized tho it may be for the democratic purpose of providing opportunities for all, is the absence of variety and elasticity. The elementary school retains its pupils up to the age of fourteen; without a flexible system of promotion each boy and girl is expected to pass thru one grade in a year. Good, bad, or indifferent, few manage to reach the high school before the age of fourteen. For many pupils this system must mean mental retardation, since the progress is based on the speed of the average. The elementary school curriculum could probably be completed by many pupils at the age of twelve or thirteen.

The system has another inherent weakness. By postponing the age for beginning secondary education or, more generally, the time for differentiation, the American boys and girls at the age of eighteen or nineteen are at least two, if not more, years behind the European boys and girls in intellectual attainments.

In the accompanying study it is not intended to argue for the introduction of any foreign system. An attempt will be made to indicate what provisions are made for differentiation of the curriculum, the age at which these opportunities are offered, and the organization of courses to meet the needs of pupils who will necessarily leave school at the age of fifteen or sixteen. Finally, the movements, based partly on the American experiment in educational democracy, partly as a conscious desire to offer an all-round curriculum for pupils who can not remain at school beyond their sixteenth birthday, will be considered as they are taking place in England and Germany.

GERMANY

MIDDLE SCHOOLS

The German school system is organized on a horizontal basis; the elementary and secondary schools form two separate compartments running parallel for a number of years. The boy who wishes to enjoy a secondary education must enter a secondary school at the age of nine or not much later. In Prussia the result is that hardly more than one boy in ten thousand passes, on the completion of an elementary school, to a secondary school. With this obvious fact in mind there is a tendency to neglect the intermediate or middle school, an institution whose appeal is to a social class a little lower than that which attends the secondary schools. It corresponds in general to the French and English Higher Elementary School.

Established originally under the *Allgemeine Bestimmungen* of 1872, the middle school was reorganized in 1910 on the following grounds:

"The development in the fields of handicrafts, art industries, commerce and industry demands an extended preparation of boys and girls for these occupations. In connection with this the need is becoming pronounced of a suitable preparation for several intermediate positions in the administrative services of the state and municipalities as well as in the larger industrial and business concerns.

"These demands the elementary school, however well developed, can meet only in a slight degree owing to the difficulties involved by its compulsory character. The aims of the higher school, on the other hand, are directed to intellectual ends, so that this school is also unable to meet the situation satisfactorily. Hence there arises the need of an institution intermediate between the elementary and the higher school which, while avoiding even the appearance of scholarly pursuits, adjusts the pupils to their environment and enables them to find themselves in their future careers. The middle school as provided under the decree of October 15, 1872, can no longer serve this end. The course of study is organized on a basis of six progressive

classes, and its requirements do not pay sufficient attention to practical life—it can, accordingly, no longer satisfy the educational demands of the present. Where these are suitably recognized, the middle school has practically developed into an organization with nine classes, because only in this manner can it satisfy its legitimate task.

"The scope of this type of school is increased by the extension of school attendance by one year and the consequent greater maturity of the pupils. The significance of this year for the intellectual development as well as the moral training and strengthening of the youth can not easily be exaggerated. The effectiveness of the extended school period is still further promoted by smaller classes, a greater wealth of teaching equipment and home environment generally more favorably for home studies."[1]

The middle school is organized on a nine-year basis, the first three of which may be given in an ordinary elementary school. Pupils may thus be transferred to the middle school proper at the age of nine and are expected to remain until they reach the age of fifteen. Tuition fees are charged but are lower than in the secondary schools. In 1913 there were 62 such schools in Prussia.

The curriculum in these schools includes religion, German, history, geography, arithmetic with bookkeeping in the last year, nature study, writing, drawing, singing, handwork (gardening and domestic subjects), physical training and one foreign language (French or English), begun at the age of ten or eleven. A second language may be offered to pupils of ability with the approval of the local authorities. When this is permitted, the language is studied during the last three years of the course. Handwork is compulsory for boys and girls—gardening for both, housekeeping for girls. Maximum and minimum hours are assigned for languages, mathematics, nature study, and drawing; the remaining subjects may be organized to suit local needs or be given a commercial or industrial bias.

This type of school is not popular with teachers or with

[1] *Bestimmungen über die Neuordnugen des Mittelschulwesens*, Feb. 3, 1910

parents. The teachers of the elementary schools object that the middle school attracts the brighter pupils who can not afford to attend a secondary school. The parents, on the other hand, feel that, if the children are retained in school until the age of fifteen, they should be granted the same privileges as pupils who attend the first six years of a secondary school up to the same age. As a concession the one-year military privilege is granted to boys who graduate from the middle school and in addition pass an examination which includes two foreign languages. Certain positions in the civil service have also been opened to pupils from these schools.

It may be objected that this type of school is a concession to the class spirit or that the trades and continuation schools afford a better training. The point to be noted, however, for American practise is the attempt to organize an institutional type that on the one hand is not elementary and on the other is not secondary, that is intended to give an all-round general course of a prevocational character to boys and girls who intend to enter the vocations in intermediate positions at about the age of fifteen. The course is not merely a broken morsel of a secondary course; it is not academic in intent; and it is not definitely vocational. It supplies a course for those whose schooling must close at the age of fifteen. The objection that the course begins at the age of nine while differentiation in this country would not begin before twelve is not valid. On closer examination it will probably be found that the elementary schools of this country offer in general as rich a curriculum as the middle schools with the exception of bookkeeping and the modern language and some introduction to the vocations. Bookkeeping is postponed to the last year; the modern language is taught for only four years. It would probably not be difficult to offer a similar type of work in a junior high school.

SECONDARY EDUCATION FOR GIRLS

The system of secondary education for girls was reorganized in Prussia in 1908 on the basis of a ten-year course

beginning at the age of six. The first three years are elementary and preparatory. Secondary education proper begins at the age of nine and is continued up to the age of sixteen, when the majority of pupils leave school. Specialization in courses corresponding to the secondary schools for boys is provided, but is not pertinent here. With the exception that French is begun at the age of nine the first three years of the general course do not differ from that of good elementary schools in this country. The major part of the secondary work falls within the period from twelve to sixteen—the period corresponding broadly to the junior high school. In this period English is added and the time devoted to natural science is increased; the remainder of the curriculum includes religion, German, history and art history, geography, arithmetic and mathematics, drawing, singing, gymnastics and needlework (optional), with the major amount of the time given to languages. Pupils who desire to specialize in the classical or semi-classical courses, which continue up to the age of nineteen, begin Latin at the age of thirteen; those who wish to emphasize foreign languages and sciences commence their specialization one year later and also continue up to nineteen.

Here again the point to which it is desired to draw attention is not the organization of a secondary school type, but of an educational opportunity that goes beyond the elementary school subjects, with the major part of the differentiation between the ages of twelve and sixteen. Those pupils who leave at the latter age have completed an all-round course; they do not merely drop out with a large number of straggling and unfinished subjects behind them. This secondary course may be used as the basis either of a general course of two years in practical arts for women, given in the Women's School (*Frauenschule*), or of a professional course for elementary school teachers of four years' duration (*Lehrerinnenseminar*). The other opportunities for specialization for the few who intend to prepare for the universities have been mentioned above. The essential contribution of the general secondary course is the

recognition of the fact that most girls will leave school at the age of sixteen.

REFORM SCHOOLS

The German reform schools (*Reformschulen*) of the Frankfort and Altona types are of considerable importance in any discussion of the reorganization of the American high school. While the latter represents a movement for earlier differentiation of educational opportunities, the former is an attempt to postpone the prevailing practise of imposing the choice of a career at the age of nine. Both movements practically coincide in making the age of twelve the crucial point.

Under the general secondary school system which includes the *Gymnasium*, *Realgymnasium*, *Oberrealschule*, and *Realschule*, a boy is compelled to make his choice of a school at the age of nine, and this choice practically prevents him from transferring to another type in case of failure. The reform plan involves the organization of a common basis for all the schools beginning at the age of nine. At this stage French is begun; the remainder of the curriculum for the first three years corresponds to that of an elementary school in this country. The time of differentiation is postponed to the age of twelve, the period at which the junior high school would begin. At this time Latin or English is begun; sciences follow later in the course on a foundation of nature study. For the majority of pupils, no matter what type of course or school they have chosen, the goal is the one-year military service privilege. This is granted on the successful completion of six years in a secondary school. In the schools organized on the reform plan this means that the privilege may be obtained three years after the period of differentiation, or normally at the age of fifteen or sixteen. In other words the bulk of the secondary school work proper falls between the ages of twelve and fifteen—the junior high school period. Not only does the reform school postpone the date of final choice, but under a more democratic system it would facilitate the transfer

of pupils from the elementary to the secondary school at the age of twelve. A discussion of the revived movement for the *Einheitsschule* will indicate the contribution made by the reform school to democracy in education. The *Einheitsschule* involves only the postponement of French to the age of twelve to throw secondary school opportunities open to all. Still one other contribution to educational thought made by the reform school must be mentioned. The experiment has proved that by better methods of instruction the attainments in Latin expected of a pupil from the *Gymnasium* at the close of nine years' study can be reached in six, while the six years' work in Greek in the *Gymnasium* is accomplished in four years. The same results are achieved with English; in the *Realgymnasium* this language is studied for six years, while only four years are required to cover the ground in the reform school of the same type.

Emphasis must again be placed not on the organization here discust, but on the general principle. If a traditional and conservative system like that of Germany can make a successful experiment in affording a well-rounded course to pupils who leave school at the age of fifteen, and under the reform plan can give the bulk of this work in the last three years of the course, a reorganization of the American high school to begin at the age of twelve and offering a far better variety of opportunities suggested not only by sounder psychological principles, but also by the social need of a democracy should be within easy reach of accomplishment.

THE *Einheitsschule* OR COMMON SCHOOL MOVEMENT

The most recent movement in German educational thought is the agitation for the *Einheitsschule*. This is a revival of a movement that had its rise in the revolutionary period of 1848, when it met the fate of all other liberal propaganda. It came to the surface again in 1870–71, but without effect. In its origin the proposal was to establish a uniform system on the foundation of a common

elementary school, articulating at the age of twelve with the secondary schools. About 1885 the movement took another turn and was confined for a few years to a desire to reorganize the secondary schools on the plan of the cosmopolitan high school—a common foundation with differentiation at thirteen or fourteen. This plan was incorporated in the *Reformschule* which has already been considered.

The present movement, however, is a revival of the original idea—a common elementary foundation with differentiation at the age of twelve. The agitation is frankly to abolish the claims of caste and privilege and to throw open educational opportunities to all in order to repair the intellectual losses of the war. The only salvation for the future is to draw on the intellectual reserve of the people. Ability and talent must be encouraged wherever it is found, and every boy must find the place that is best suited to his needs and capacity. The future school must provide not an easy but an unobstructed road. The *Einheitsschule* must be established to afford the best opportunity for all to cooperate in promoting the great aims of the German culture state. The national unity aroused by the war must be made the basis of the educational reorganization of the future. To preserve the unity of party, class and sect all must sit upon the same school bench. The *Einheitsschule* implies a unified school system branching out into various school types when the needs for further culture and the demands of practical life appear.

The logical consequence of the establishment of the *Einheitsschule* would be the abolition of the preparatory schools (*Vorschulen*). The disappearance of this class-school would mean a saving in fees for three years, while pupils would not be compelled to select a secondary school until the age of twelve, at which time they would have exhibited some capacity or bent. The present system of an early choice of a secondary school type frequently leads to retardation in the middle classes of the secondary schools.

Too many pupils who have no business to be there attend the secondary schools. If selection were postponed to the age of twelve, there would be greater likelihood of a correct choice. The *Einheitsschule* implies a common foundation on the basis of a thoro education in the mother tongue. Such an institution would secure the basis of national and social unity and would satisfy the social and cultural demands of the laboring classes. True nationalism can only be fostered by a national system of education, which would absorb the laboring classes into the political and social system to renew the life of the nation. The aim of the *Einheitsschule*, however, should not be merely to enable a few individuals to reach the top, but to give each individual the opportunity of being placed in the position best suited to his ability without distinction of class.

Detailed plans of organization are not yet suggested, but tendencies may be surmised. The present types of secondary courses—literary, linguistic and scientific—would be retained, but the beginning of specialization would be postponed. In addition it is recommended that a three-year course based entirely on German should be offered, and that trade schools should be recognized as of secondary grade and should be permitted to lead to the privilege of the one-year military service.

The movement involves four principles: (1) The democratization of education; (2) the redefinition of the meaning of a liberal education; (3) the postponement of specialization in secondary school subjects to the age of twelve; and (4) the provision of differentiated courses, some for those who must leave at the age of fifteen, others for those who can complete a nine-year course or desire to continue to the universities. A summary of the movement is contained in the suggestion that the question for the artisan is not "How can I raise my son in the social scale thru education?" but "How can I secure thru education for my class, or rather the able men in it, suitable influence in the administration of the state and of the community, and in

industry, commerce and transport, and how can I put an end to privileges that are socially detrimental?"

FRANCE

HIGHER ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

Altho the French secondary schools are practically closed to the pupils who are unable to afford the requisite tuition fees, other educational facilities are offered to them for enjoying an education reaching beyond the scope of the elementary schools. These are provided in the higher elementary schools (*écoles primaires supérieures*) organized originally in 1893 and reconstructed in 1909. In character these institutions correspond almost exactly to the proposed junior high schools, perhaps more closely than any other foreign institution.

Boys and girls are admitted to the higher elementary school after completing the elementary school course and obtaining the certificate of primary studies for which they can present themselves at the age of twelve. The duration of the course in the higher elementary school is two or three years; always three years in a fully reorganized school. The three-year courses provide a common curriculum for all pupils in the first year and then differentiate into general, industrial, commercial and agricultural courses and household arts for girls. But these schools are not vocational. In the words of M. Gasquet, director of elementary education, "We do not aim to train apprentices or specialists ready for immediate employment in commerce and industry. The task of our schools is to help pupils to know themselves, to give them a taste for manual work, to make them familiar with the essential equipment of all occupations; then they should prepare them by a strict theoretical education which should never lose contact with the practical and after an indispensable period in an industrial (or commercial or agricultural) concern to become the progressive non-commissioned officers in industry, capable of adapting themselves to the diverse and ever-changing needs of manufacture." Opportunities are offered to those

who complete the general course to transfer to the second cycle of a secondary school; this, together with an increasingly flexible curriculum in the secondary schools, is making for the greater democratization of higher education.

The subjects of instruction common to all pupils in all the courses are: Morals; civics; French language and literature; modern foreign languages; national history and outlines of general history; geography of France and the colonies, and a general outline of geography; practical arithmetic, speed in numbering, algebra and geometry; outlines of chemistry, physics and natural sciences; hygiene; writing; design and modeling; singing; gymnastics and military training (for boys).

The special interests cover: Outlines of political economy and every-day law; theory and practise of subjects relating to industry, commerce and agriculture such as mechanics, technology, industrial chemistry, industrial electricity, agriculture, agricultural chemistry, wares, transportation and customs; stenography and typewriting, accounting and bookkeeping; geometrical and artistic design and modeling; workshop and laboratory practise, agriculture and horticulture for boys; and care of infants, household management, cooking, gardening, farming, care of linen, and dressmaking for girls.

Fees are charged in these schools, many of which are boarding schools, but the state offers scholarships covering the board, or maintenance, or expenses of a lodging where there are no boarding facilities in the school. The scholarships are granted on a competitive examination, and the home conditions are also taken into consideration. Grants are also made for clothing. At the close of the course pupils who have graduated and are between the ages of sixteen and eighteen are eligible for traveling scholarships, granted on a competitive examination. The scholarships are offered to pupils who intend to pursue an industrial or a commercial career, to enable them to improve their command of a foreign language. The scholarships were ordinarily held in England or Germany, sometimes in Spain or Italy.

The completion of a course in a full higher elementary school is marked by an examination for the certificate of higher elementary studies. Candidates must have attained their fifteenth birthday on the last day of the year in which they present themselves for the examination. The examination is written, oral and practical. Five certificates are granted in the general, agricultural, industrial, commercial, and household arts courses. Graduates in the general course have the privilege of proceeding to a secondary school, where they may be admitted to the second cycle, while others enter the lower branches of the civil service.

SECONDARY SCHOOL FOR BOYS

The French secondary schools (*lycées* and *collèges*) are limited to those pupils who can afford to pay the high fees. Ordinarily few pupils pass from the elementary to the secondary schools, and a small percentage are assisted by scholarships. The complete secondary course is organized on the basis of seven years, beginning at the age of eleven, the preparatory courses from the age of six up to eleven are elementary in character, with the exception that modern languages are begun and taught for three years before the secondary course proper commences. Since the time allotted to the subjects is small (2 week hours for three years), and since as a rule the subjects are poorly taught, this difference may practically be eliminated. The secondary course proper is begun usually at the age of eleven.

In order to provide flexibility the secondary course is divided into two cycles—one of four years and the other of three years. For purposes of the present study the first cycle only—taking pupils from the age of eleven to fifteen—is of interest. Two differentiated courses are offered in the first cycle—the Latin—modern language course and the modern language—scientific course. The common subjects of both courses are: French, ethics, modern languages, history and geography, arithmetic and mathematics and natural science. The first course lays emphasis on Latin and Greek, which may be added in the third year; the second course stresses modern language and sciences.

At the close of the four years pupils who desire to continue in the secondary school have the further choice of four courses—classical, Latin—modern languages; Latin—science, science—modern language, pursued for two years, and followed by one year of specialization in the class of philosophy or mathematics. The significance of the division in two cycles, however, is that pupils who desire to leave on the completion of the first cycle may do so and may obtain on the basis of their record and the recommendation of their teachers a certificate of secondary studies of the first degree. Farrington sums up the significance of this opportunity of leaving at the age of fifteen, as follows:[2] The close of the first cycle "forms a natural break just about midway of the course and rounds out a complete tho elementary circle of intellectual achievement. If the pupil is compelled to drop out here he can do so without feeling that he is leaving a piece of work half done. He can carry away with him a definite unity of ideas. He has covered in cursory fashion the whole range of the national literature, paying considerable attention to the classic writers; he has studied from one to three foreign languages, according to the course he has selected, for from two to four or more years; he has completed elementary arithmetic, with perhaps some more advanced mathematics; he has been introduced to scientific lore; he has studied the geography of the whole world; he is familiar with the great movements of history from the very beginning down to 1889; and he has had two years of elementary moral instruction, introduced to supply the place of the former religious teaching; in other words, he has touched practically all the subjects of secondary school study."

The emphasis must here be placed not so much on the differentiation of courses, for since they are mainly literary they can not serve as a model for American practise, but on the definite recognition that a considerable percentage of pupils do drop out from the secondary schools around the age of fifteen. It is mainly with these in view that the

[2] Monroe: *Principles of Secondary Education*, p. 79.

seven-year course was in 1902 divided into two well-marked courses, offering those who desired to leave the opportunity of completing a definite course, and to others the opportunity of specializing in the second cycle. This practise obviates the patent evil of English and American secondary school systems in which pupils leave when and where they please without anything but a mass of uncoordinated, unrelated and undigested subjects rather than on the completion of a well-marked and rounded-out stage in the secondary school career.

SECONDARY EDUCATION OF GIRLS

The system of secondary education of girls in France bears a closer resemblance to the desired organization of the junior high school than the system for boys. But like the boys' secondary system the secondary girls' schools (*lycées* and *collèges*) are also divided into two cycles. Secondary education for girls begins a year later than for boys, that is, at the age of twelve. A preparatory course of four years, beginning at the age of eight, is offered and includes two and a half week hours of modern languages. Otherwise the preparatory course is elementary in character and includes French, history and geography, arithmetic, nature study and drawing. Secondary education proper begins at the age of twelve and lasts five years, divided into two cycles of three and two years. The majority of the girls leave school on completing the first cycle at the age of fifteen. The certificate of secondary studies may be obtained at the end of this course, representing the completion of a definitely rounded-out general cultural course. The program of studies covers the following subjects: Ethics, French language and literature, modern language, history and geography, mathematics, natural history, physics and chemistry, domestic economy and hygiene, sewing, drawing, singing and gymnastics.

The second cycle of two years includes the following required subjects: Ethics, psychology applied to ethics and education, French language and literature, ancient literature

in translation, modern foreign literature in translation, modern languages, history, geography, mathematics, common law, physics and chemistry, animal and vegetable anatomy, and physiology and hygiene. In addition, the following optional subjects are offered: Mathematics, additional modern language, sewing, drawing and singing, and gymnastics.

ENGLAND

INTERMEDIATE EDUCATION

Within the past few years a new type of school, offering a course beyond that of the elementary schools to pupils who can not remain at school beyond the age of fifteen, has been established since 1911 in London, Manchester, and other cities. This is an attempt to supersede the higher elementary schools for which the Board of Education prescribed an inelastic curriculum that could not be adopted to local needs. The London County Council in establishing the central schools declared their object to be the provision for the boy or girl of "the best possible equipment for entering upon the industrial and commercial world as soon as he leaves school which at the same time qualifies him to enter upon a special course of training for some particular industry at a polytechnic or similar institution if he desires to continue his education further."

Elasticity and adaptation to local needs are the guiding principles in the organization of the central schools, and the school principals enjoy considerable freedom in framing the curriculum of their schools. The pupils for the central schools are selected by competitive examination between the ages of eleven and twelve. In ability these pupils come next to those who are successful in obtaining scholarships to secondary schools. Each central school draws upon about 18 to 20 contributory schools. The complaint is, of course, met that the elementary schools are denuded of pupils of ability, without recognizing that these pupils deserve every possible opportunity for educational advancement.

The central schools are organized with a commercial or an industrial bias, or both. Generally the nature of the bias is determined by the character of the district in which the school is situated. Where a school is organized on both commercial and industrial lines, the wishes of the parents, and, if possible, the bent of the pupils, are considered in determining the choice of a course. In some cases the determining factor is the accommodation of the school. Of the two courses, the commercial, probably because the requirements are more obvious and because a tradition has already been established, is the more definite and objective. The industrial courses, for boys at any rate, are more generalized and aim at training in alertness and initiative rather than special training for any particular occupation. And, indeed, special preparation in an area like London, where the industries are gradually moving away, would offer a problem of insurmountable difficulty, even if it were desirable. As a matter of fact many boys who have past thru an industrial course, enter warehouses and offices. This problem is not surrounded with such difficulties in the case of girls' schools, for here the industrial courses combine preparation for the home with general training in needlework and dressmaking.

The commercial courses in schools or departments with a commercial bias are so framed that scholars are able to enter business houses without any further preparation. The minimum requirements as laid down in the *Elementary Schools Handbook* of the London County Council are as follows:

(1) At least four hours a week must be given to a modern language during the whole of the four years' course.

(2) Not less than two hours a week must be given to laboratory work in experimental science during the first and second years of the course, and, if thought desirable, this instruction may be continued during the third and fourth years.

(3) At least two hours a week must be given to drawing, including scale drawing thruout the whole of the course.

(4) In the case of boys, one session a week must be given to handicraft during the first and second years.

(5) In the case of girls, one session a week must be given to domestic economy during the first three years of the course, but its continuance in the fourth year is optional.

(6) Not less than one and a half hours a week must be given to shorthand as an optional subject in the third and fourth years.

(7) Not less than one hour a week must be given to the principles of bookkeeping during the third and fourth years as an optional subject.

(8) Where there is sufficient demand, an optional out-of-school class in typewriting must be held for one hour a day. . . . to be attended only by third and fourth year pupils.

In addition to the above, the ordinary school subjects—Scripture, English, history, geography, mathematics, singing, and physical exercises—are also included. Where both commercial and industrial courses are offered in the same school, the curriculum, with the exception of the modern language, is the same for both groups in the first two years, the bifurcation taking place at the beginning of the third year.

It would be impossible to enter into details of the curriculum, for the standard is found to vary from school to school, and for comparative purposes an outline will be of greater service. As compared with the ordinary elementary schools, it may be said in general that the curriculum of the central schools, in spite of the additional subjects, is richer in content, and since the classes are smaller, a certain improvement in the methods of instruction can be observed. Training in initiative and in habits of independent working and thinking is more successful. The teachers are free from the bad practise of lecturing, while the pupils show greater ability to work by themselves. It is not forgotten that the pupils of the central schools are selected, nor that as a rule the teachers have higher qualifications (altho poor teachers are to be found here too),

but it is a fact that here are schools which are attempting to realize the standards of the newer pedagogy. Let it, however, not be inferred that the curriculum is beyond criticism or that the methods of instruction are always unimpeachable. There are schools the head teachers of which feel that the old practise of working for examinations according to the scheme of some outside examining body can not be improved upon, or who hold that a broad, general preparation for the career of the office or the home does not possess educational elements.

In those schools or departments which have been organized with an industrial bias the object is perhaps somewhat less well defined than where the commercial bias has been adopted. Here it is clearly impossible to provide the special preparation of the type given in a trade school or polytechnic. The aim, as it is indicated by the headmaster of the Monnow Road school for boys and indorsed by other headmasters, is "to produce an intelligent and alert boy, accurate and skilful of hand, capable of continuous effort, and less book taught." The curriculum is accordingly organized to train industrial intelligence rather than to impart vocational skill. The aim in the girls' schools with an industrial bias is somewhat more specific, and, besides affording a preparation for the home, enables the pupils to secure employment in dressmaking, needlework, and millinery establishments.

The minimum requirements for central schools with an industrial bias or a department with such a bias are as follows:[3]

> (i) Not less than 10 and not more than 12 hours per week must be given to practical work during the whole of the four years' course. The practical work in the case of boys shall consist of science (including mensuration), drawing, clay-modeling, wood and metal work, and, in special circumstances, leather work and printing or other approved subjects; and in the case of girls it shall consist of elementary science, domestic economy, drawing, practical needlework, or other approved subjects.
>
> (ii) Instruction in a modern foreign language may, in special circumstances, be given, but the minimum of three hours a week to be devoted to instruction in the subject.....must be observed.

[3] *Elementary Schools Handbook*, p. 140.

Work of similar character is being done in other cities. A study of the elementary schools of England carries the conviction that the majority of pupils after the age of twelve profit by some differentiation of causes suited to their needs and abilities. The Act of 1918 provides both for the establishment of advanced instruction for pupils who remain in the last two grades of the elementary schools and for the extensive organization of central schools. As things are at present the child of wealthy parents, no matter what his intellectual capacity may be, is admitted to the secondary schools, where he fritters away his own time and in most cases public money as well, while a large percentage of less fortunate boys and girls drop out of the elementary schools without any life preparation whatever. Under a more democratic system the central schools would be classed with secondary schools. Many of the central schools, because the principals are conscious of a definite purpose, are far more alert than the traditional secondary schools. The central schools are conscious of this aim—the completion of an all-round four-year course; the secondary schools merely display a variegated program of courses and are not much concerned either with the number of pupils that complete the course of their choice nor with the time consumed in the process.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

The situation in England with reference to the adequate education of boys and girls who can remain in school only up to the age of fifteen is almost the same as in this country, with the exception that pupils of ability may complete the elementary course and obtain scholarships at about the age of twelve, which take them to the secondary schools. These schools, however, are not organized with the intention of meeting the needs of the pupils under consideration. In general, their aim is to prepare boys and girls for the universities or at any rate for the entrance examinations to the universities. They are, in other words, not self-contained; their aim lies outside of and beyond the secondary schools. A few schools attempt to provide specialized courses in com-

merce and technical subjects, but these provisions are inadequate, and will be met by an increase of junior and senior technical and commercial schools, articu'ated ultimately with the university courses in these special branches. The basis of organization is literary; pupils may begin to specialize either in classics or modern languages, and in some schools in science.

The majority of pupils leave at least two years before completing the course offered by the schools. They have a smattering of a number of subjects without any definite command of a single one. It is obvious that with conditions as they are the situation should be faced and a general all-round and purposeful training should be given to suit the needs of those who must leave at about the age of sixteen. The Board of Education requires that a secondary school to be recognized for purposes of the state grant "must offer to its pupils a progressive course of general education . . . . . of a kind and amount suitable for pupils of an age range as wide as from 12 to 17." The curriculum of such schools must provide instruction in the English language and literature, at least one foreign language, geography, history, mathematics, science and drawing, with organized games, physical exercises, manual instruction and singing. Girls' schools must provide for practical instruction in needlework, cookery, laundry work, housekeeping and household hygiene. It must be noted that the Board simply considers secondary education in terms of subjects taught rather than in terms of purpose suited to the needs of the pupils. It implies that pupils while they are at school shall take some or all of these subjects but provides no machinery for the organization of courses adapted to the conditions mentioned above. The schools exist for the benefit of the few who will continue to the end and probably pass on to the universities.

With reference to the proper age for differentiation it is significant that the tendency is to encourage the transfer of the more gifted pupils from the elementary to the secondary schools between the ages of eleven and twelve.

In the case of fee-paying pupils the practise has grown up of discouraging late entrance into secondary schools by increasing the fees with age. Scholarships are as a rule offered to pupils between the ages of eleven and thirteen. Some education authorities add a percentage of marks for each month that a candidate is below the maximum age limit in order to discourage late entrance and incidentally depriving those who develop late of their due opportunities.

THE REFORM OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

The most significant movement for the reform of English education after the war centers around secondary education. At present the elementary and secondary school systems overlap, but the transfer from the one to the other is encouraged by means of scholarships and free tuition. The secondary schools, however, are not organized in such a way as to meet the needs of the majority of the pupils in attendance, with the result that they fail to hold them until the end of the courses provided. The new movement, as voiced in the *Times Educational Supplement* since 1915, demands a reorganization of the whole school system with elementary or preparatory education up to the age of eleven or twelve, and free universal education thereafter. The second part of this proposal involves the reconstruction of the secondary system so as to meet the requirements of the large number of pupils who can only remain at school until the age of fifteen or sixteen, and a revision of the meaning of liberal education. Side by side with these radical proposals must be placed the recommendations of a number of conservative bodies, which, while not advocating universal secondary education, are thinking of it in terms of the pupils who will leave at the age of sixteen.

The campaign was begun by the *Times Educational Supplement* in September, 1915. The arguments for reconstruction were that the elementary and secondary schools overlap, and economy demands dove-tailing. The work of the elementary schools is good up to about the age of eleven; this should become the preparatory stage from which

pupils should move forward to an intermediate school for a minimum of four years. "It is in the training of children between the ages of eleven and fourteen that the elementary schools so largely fail. It is not the fault of the schools or the teachers. The teachers have never been trained to give intermediate or secondary training, and the result is that to the children between the ages in question there is given what Sir Joshua Fitch called a *cul de sac* education, something that leads nowhither. . . . . We must have intermediate schools for all, provided with teachers specially trained for intermediate or secondary schools teaching."

Returning to the subject in October, 1915, the *Times* amplifies this statement, "There are nearly half a million children between the ages of twelve and fourteen who are receiving no education or no education worth having. Some of these are at school, but all are at work, work leading nowhither, at an age when moral and physical development are at stake. . . . . In our view the problem of the elimination of human waste and the multiplication of human efficiency can only be secured by a universal system of secondary education. . . . . There should be, as there is today, preparatory education up to the age of eleven years. . . . . and from that age onward there should be in every school in the land compulsory secondary education for every child given by teachers who have received a secondary training, and, in ever-increasing numbers, a university training. . . . . The primary school has failed lamentably in its dealing with children between the ages of eleven and fourteen; and it has failed because of the inherent defects of the primary ideal."

The article then proceeds to point out the distinction between elementary and secondary education from the point of view of aim and content. "Elementary teaching can not give an outfit for life. It is in its nature preparatory; and when it ceases to be preparatory it merely supplies uncorrelated knowledge and an education leading nowhither. On the other hand, secondary teaching has as its goal the power of reasoning about acquired knowledge and thus

securing self-realization. The primary ideal is the heaping up of knowledge as an external property or possession; the secondary ideal is the assimilation of knowledge as part of the personality. The latter ideal gives an outfit for life, a wise, thoughtful, and productive people; the former gives us what we have got—a nation with two million children running to waste."

As described in the December issue the course of this intermediate school should be general in character, but suited to the different abilities of the pupils. Specialization is only to be provided for on the completion of this course. "We claim that when once the child has had a thoro preparatory training—such a training up to the age of eleven as he has now—he shall have for four years a liberal training in a school that uses hand as well as brain for the acquisition of knowledge of himself and the world, and that then there shall at the age of fifteen be not merely bifurcation, but branchings off in such directions as the experience of a skilled teacher during four years shows to be the direction for this or that child—for one group continued school life, with special training in humanities, or in higher mathematics, or in applied science; for another, apprentice work in industrial or agricultural, or mercantile life, but with some hold still retained, some claim still, on the child's daylight time till the seventeenth year is reached, if it be but two mornings or afternoons in the week." The reference at the close is to the parallel movement for the establishment of compulsory day continuation schools for all who are not attending school between the ages of fourteen and eighteen.

Briefly analyzed this educational revolution advocated by the *Times* contemplates the reconstruction of the century-old secondary school systems in the interests of individual and national welfare. It involves a revision of the educational possibilities between the ages of eleven and fifteen; it provides for an education more appropriate than the present as an outfit for life; and, finally, it requires the employment of teachers with wider and broader training. The scheme aims to give the pupil not merely a better

preparation for life, but one more suited to his own needs and abilities. At the same time the new school will not be cut off in a watertight compartment; it will be built up on the foundations of the elementary school and itself will form the starting-point for further specialized education. The pupil who will be compelled to leave at the age of fifteen or sixteen will feel that he has completed one course, but properly organized such a course should prompt him to seek for further training.

It is difficult at present to discover to what extent the suggestions of the *Times* have met with approval. A large number of educational bodies have considered the reconstruction of English education. Not one of these, however, appears to accept the recommendations of the *Times, in toto,* altho a number welcomes the provision of free secondary education. There is unanimous agreement that secondary education should begin at eleven or twelve and offer a general course of four years without specialization. This reorganization was advocated among others by the London Teachers' Association, and the Workers' Education Association, the Headmasters' Association and the Education Reform Council, of which Sir Michael Sadler and Professor Gilbert Murray were members. These associations represent the interests of the elementary and secondary profession, and of labor. There is general agreement that the minimum essentials of a four-year secondary course should cover English, history, geography, one foreign language, mathematics, science, drawing, music, handwork and physical training. This plan does not provide adequately for the differentiation that is desirable in such a four-year course, but it is an advance on the present system which neglects to take actual conditions into consideration. The Education Reform Council, without entering into any details, contemplated the organization of middle departments in the elementary system for pupils from the ages of eleven to about fifteen to be linked up with a system of compulsory continuation schools requiring attendance up to the age of seventeen. The National Union of Teachers, representing

about 100,000 teachers mainly in elementary schools, recognizes that there is a demand for a higher type of instruction than that of the elementary school for pupils who can stay up to fifteen. This demand should be met either by an improvement in the upper departments of the elementary schools or by other schools of varying type. The Union considers it undesirable to specialize in the direction of a particular trade before the age of fourteen; such special training should be given in a trade school or in connection with workshops. The schools here under consideration should give instruction of a general character with a special bias in the direction of industry or commerce and providing a broad equipment for life.

The recent administrative regulations of the Board of Education recognize twelve as the suitable age for beginning secondary school work; the first four years are general in character and culminate at sixteen in an examination, success in which may admit a candidate to the universities; this period is to be followed by specialization for two years in "advanced courses"—classics, modern languages, or science and mathematics,—concluding with a second examination at about the age of eighteen.

Whatever the outcome of the proposals for reform may be, the principles underlying them all are: (1) That educational differentiation for most pupils shall not begin before the age of eleven or twelve; (2) that at present the last years of the elementary school are wasteful; (3) that for the majority of pupils of secondary school age a course or choice of courses covering four years should be provided; (4) that such course shall be general and not vocational in character; (5) that they should be planned to meet the needs of pupils who will leave school at the age of fifteen or sixteen; and (6) that intensive specialization should not be begun until after this period.

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VI

TRAINING TEACHERS OF AGRICULTURE

With the rise of instruction in agriculture in the secondary schools, more serious attention has been given to the training of teachers of agriculture.[1] The agricultural colleges were the first institutions that required agricultural teachers, but little or no time has been given to their specific professional training. College teachers of agriculture have hitherto been required to possess little more than a good knowledge of their subject, aptitude in instructing others, and a fairly good personality. Often some of these desirable characteristics were overlooked. Only recently have we come to the conviction that teachers of agriculture must be specially trained.

EXPERIENCE WITH TEACHERS NOT SPECIFICALLY TRAINED

It is the effort to secure teachers of agriculture for the high schools that has given us the most valuable experiences and suggestions. When the demand suddenly came for high school teachers of agriculture, because of the introduction of this subject into the secondary schools near the beginning of the present century, teachers were available only from four sources: namely, from the teachers of nature study in the grades, from the agricultural college graduates, from the science teachers in the high schools, and from practical farmers. Experience has shown that each of these classes of teachers is prone to certain mistakes, caused by lack of proper training. With a view of formulating more definite knowledge to assist in the solution of the problem of training teachers of agriculture, the various shortcomings of these four classes of teachers are here described.[2]

[1] A teacher of agriculture is here defined as a person who devotes his whole professional time to the teaching and educational practise of agriculture.

[2] See p. 116, et seq., of my book, entitled *Agricultural Education for Teachers*, 1914; also p. viii–ix of my book, entitled, *The Teaching of Agriculture in the High School*, 1911. William G. Hummel and Bertha Royce: *Materials and Methods in High School Agriculture*, 1913, p. 354–355.

The nature-study teacher is apt to carry his methods of instruction bodily into the teaching of agriculture. Notwithstanding what has been said by some writers as to the desirability of this, such a procedure is a grave error. The nature-study teacher instructs with no idea of building the lessons into parts of a great science; the teacher of agriculture not only should do this consciously, but should also bring the pupils to this realization. Lessons in nature study very often have aims and ideals other than economic;[3] but, with very few exceptions, the predominating aim in a lesson in agriculture is economic. In nature study, for instance, the mouth parts of an insect are studied in terms of the part they play in the economy of the animal's daily existence; but in agriculture they are studied with reference to contributing, ultimately, to the welfare of man, as, for example, the discovery of a method for combating the insect, if it is an injurious one.

The methods of approach in nature study are idealistic, often beginning with a story, a guessing game, a novel sight or experience, and ending with a satisfaction growing out of a mental condition—knowledge, reflection, wonderment. The method of approach in agriculture is materialistic, frequently beginning with the commonest farm object or experience, and resulting in a job and a bank account. The nature study of today as known in the formal education of American children is a subject that has become intimately associated with the primary and lower grammar grades. It is taught by methods necessary in the teaching of little children. The boys and girls of fifteen years are quite different from the younger group in their instincts, experiences, motives, and development generally. This is eminently the age of the boy scout and the campfire girl. Desires of physical prowess, shrewd outwitting, and economic gain are very prominent characteristics displayed by these youngsters. The methods used in teaching them must take account of such things. The utilitarian

[3] See Chapter VII, *Elementary Agriculture and Nature Study*, p. 62–74, of my book, *Agricultural Education for Teachers*.

attitude which shows the use of the subject; the industrial method, which exercises the muscles as well as the brain; the economic result, which repays efforts and satisfies worthy desires will all be employed by the wise teacher of adolescent children. Perhaps there is no other subject with which these principles of teaching can so well be used as with agriculture. The nature-study teacher to become a teacher of agriculture must readjust his methods and aims. He must recognize the new piece of human nature that he is to teach; and he must, therefore, select new materials and organize them on a new basis for instructional purposes.

The agricultural college graduate, as experience has shown, invariably has his troubles. These arise from three distinct sources. First, he does not understand the children. Association for a period of four or more years in college with adults has given him the point of view in education in which only matured minds, bodies, experiences and lives have entered. He needs to realize that the pupils in the high schools are immature, untrained and inexperienced. The driving home of this realization is frequently too long delayed. In the second place, the graduate of the agricultural college knows little about teaching methods. He knows agriculture, but not the youth he is to teach. The abundance of knowledge that he emits falls like a cataract over the heads and lives of the boys, who emerge with the realization that there has been a flood, but show scarcely any evidence of the moisture of learning. A knowledge of the science of teaching, as well as the ability to apply it in practise, is quite as essential in securing efficiency in education as a knowledge of the subject taught. One would suppose that this class of teacher should acquire some knowledge from their professors, and practise this by imitation; but, unfortunately, the lack of training and ability in teaching does not always exclude learned men from the active teaching staff of our colleges and universities. Third, while the agricultural college graduate may know his subject thoroly, he rarely knows what to omit or what to include in teaching it to the pupils of the public schools.

He has gathered a fund of agricultural knowledge with the intention of using it on the farm, and not for instructional purposes. His knowledge has not been educationalized. He does not know the philosophy, or the science, or the art of education; and never having been taught either by precept or example, we can not expect him to understand, or to practise successfully, the teaching profession. If he has been trained to be a farmer, a farmer he should be. One of the chief economic wastes in our educational system arises from the blunders of those who do not understand the principles of education and teaching.

The high school science teacher seldom holds the proper attitude toward the subject of agriculture, especially if his training has been in the usual college sciences other than agriculture. Except in the engineering colleges and the trade schools, science is seldom taught as applied. The majority of college graduates, therefore, know only pure science, while agriculture, in so far as it is a science, is an applied science. The attitude toward agriculture as a science should be industrial and vocational as well as cultural. But agriculture is more than a science: it is also an art and a business. The science graduate will probably not have had any training in the art or the business of agriculture; therefore, he can not be regarded as having had adequate preparation to teach a subject, two-thirds of which he knows little or nothing. If the average science teacher is permitted to teach the agriculture of the high school, the result must be that the pupils will have only a partial and lopsided view of the subject.

There is another very serious error into which the science teacher is likely to fall, and this has reference to the methods that he uses in the teaching process. He will in all probability, by example and thru his practise teaching of science,—if by good fortune or unusually wise guidance he has received such necessary training—have acquired the pure science method of approach. Pure science methods, however, are not suitable to the teaching of agriculture without important modifications. The applied-science

method of approach should be used. There are two fundamental reasons for this: first, because the subject itself is largely an applied science; and second, because the pupils of the public schools, who are capable of receiving intelligent instruction in this subject, are more readily appealed to and taught by the applied-science method. The most important thing in teaching facts and principles in agriculture is that the young men shall understand their application to farm practise. There is little excuse for teaching anything in agriculture to country children without also teaching its application to the life and work of the farm. The only probable exceptions to this rule would be in the cases of the girls, who may never be called upon to assume any of the responsibilities of farming operations; and the pupils in city schools, who have a limited field for the application of the facts and principles of agriculture but who, nevertheless, should, as a matter of culture, know something about agriculture. In view of these various handicaps, the science teacher is apt to view the subject of high school agriculture unsympathetically.

Practical farmers who have had little or no school or college training have been a fourth class of would-be teachers of agriculture, but it scarcely deserves notice in this discussion. Persons of this class are usually those who have been raised on the farm, and who, therefore, think themselves qualified to teach agriculture. If this is their only qualification for teaching there is certainly no excuse for their employment.

SPECIFICALLY TRAINED TEACHERS OF AGRICULTURE

From the foregoing brief review of the experiences we have had in the past with the various classes of agricultural teachers, we are fully prepared to declare that the teacher of agriculture should be an agriculturally trained man with practical farm experience, who has also received specific training in the principles and practise of teaching agriculture to boys of adolescent age. The question naturally arises here: From whence will come our best teachers of

agriculture in the future? They will come from the agricultural education departments of our agricultural colleges, teachers, colleges, and normal schools. These departments should give definite training in the theory and practise of teaching the subject in all the grades of educational institutions, including the elementary school, the high school, the normal school and the college.

It all means exactly this: that there must be specific training for teachers of agriculture; that there is a difference between farmer training and teacher training; that to secure the greatest efficiency in the teaching of agriculture, this difference must be recognized and provided for; that there must be departments in our agricultural colleges, teachers colleges, and normal schools in charge of specialists of agricultural teaching; that these departments should avail themselves of all courses possible for them to use in the training of the various grades of agricultural teachers and supervisors of agricultural teaching; and that they should institute and offer new or special courses needed. This implies a distinct program of studies, but not a wholly new set of courses. To administer such special training there will be need of a distinct department administered by an adequate number of well qualified instructors, depending upon the extent and degree of efficiency to which the work of teacher training is carried, and the encouragement that this new department of agricultural education, or agricultural teaching, receives.

It means, also, that prospective teachers of agriculture must receive definite and practical training both in the science and art of teaching, and in the science, business, and practise of agriculture. Theoretical knowledge is not sufficient; ability in practise and successful application must become a prerequisite to entering the profession of agricultural teaching. Teachers of agriculture must secure definite and sure reactions to what they teach. This means that their pupils should become both the possessors of clear-cut knowledge and ability to put it into actual and successful practise. For example: after the importance of giving good

care to milk cows has been studied, and instruction given about the things that constitute good care, the student should not only be able to enumerate definitely the practises and principles involved, but he should be taught how to do the manual labor required, and the cows at his home should realize that something definite has occurred to the boy!

A TWO-FOLD PROBLEM

The training of good teachers of agriculture, therefore, assumes a two-fold problem; namely, the technical, and the professional. These have, further, two phases each, *i. e.*, the purely academic, which has reference to the learning of the facts, principles, and laws in each of the two-fold fields involved in the agricultural teacher's training; and the practical, which has reference to the acquisition of experiences—of the ability to do those performances and processes that are involved in farming and in teaching. The content and the method, therefore, constitute the two great coordinate problems in the formal training of teachers to teach agriculture. Teachers must know thoroly the things they teach and how best to teach them. Scholarship is the first requisite to the true success of a master teacher. The teacher of vocational agriculture, furthermore, must know the details of practical farming and must know what things should be done in the various situations that arise in farming, and how to do them. The close administrative correlation of these two phases of training in the preparation of teachers of agriculture is essential.

COURSES THAT SHOULD BE PURSUED AND WHY

It becomes more imperative, year by year, that teachers of agriculture should prepare themselves most thoroly for their work. Experience has shown what this preparation should consist of and what should be included in the curriculums of the departments of agricultural education in educational institutions, especially in the land-grant colleges.

In the formulation of a curriculum in agricultural educa-

tion, there are four factors that must be recognized: namely, (1) the technical training, including its application; (2) the professional or pedagogical instruction, including supervised teaching experience under normal conditions; (3) the general training (liberal arts) courses that are more or less contributory to the efficiency of the agricultural teacher, and (4) the administrative, including organization and economic factors.

1. Technical Training: A teacher of agriculture needs to be well trained in the fundamentals of all the various departments of agricultural science and practise. In the agricultural college, each department should offer an introductory course covering, in a general way, the fundamentals of agricultural science and practise as represented in its particular field of agriculture. The prospective teacher of agriculture should include all these general courses in his program of studies. In addition to these general courses he should select the more important and less highly specialized courses in each department, electing heavily in that department of agriculture in which the section or state, where he expects to teach, excels or is especially adapted.

Any agricultural course should give ample opportunity for observation and practise under normal farm conditions, where students may see or experience the results of the information gained. Class, laboratory, and field work, including the operation of a small demonstration farm and home projects, should be provided. Prospective teachers of agriculture ought to be given practical training in agricultural project work, by giving them certain agricultural projects to perform under normal farm conditions and under the supervision and direction of the training teacher of vocational agriculture.

A program of this character gives the proper perspective to the various departments of agricultural science, art, and business; and constitutes an indispensable basis for the special application of the principles of pedagogy to agricultural teaching. Such a course will also make an excellent foundation upon which to build a specialized study in any

of the various departments of agriculture which the student in training may choose.

2. Professional Instruction: The professional training of agricultural teachers should be an adaptation of that given to teachers in general. The curriculum should include a brief course in educational psychology, also, of educational or general method. These courses should be followed by courses in special methods in teaching agriculture, particularly to adolescents. Concomitantly or following the special methods course, the prospective teacher should be given opportunity for practise teaching, gradually giving him more and more opportunity and responsibility, so that he may receive some actual experience in teaching agriculture under normal school and community conditions, all the while, however, under adequate supervision or direction.

In addition to the foregoing, the prospective teacher of agriculture should be given a course in the history of agricultural instruction, a course in vocational education, and probably, a third course in the administration of agricultural education. Thru these three courses, the teacher in training will secure the proper perspective of the true position of agriculture in the whole educational scheme; and the proper attitude toward vocational agriculture ought to result.

But this is not enough. Teachers of agriculture, especially in vocational departments of high schools, are properly expected to do local extension work, especially among the rural schools. To prepare the prospective teacher to do this work effectively, he should be given a thoro course in extension methods, including public speaking, and some practical experience in doing extension work in rural communities.

3. Contributory General Training: The training of teachers of agriculture may not properly be limited to the technical subjects. There are other subjects that contribute to the efficiency of agricultural teaching. In fact, it is essential that teachers of agriculture should have a ground-

ing in general science—especially in chemistry and physics, economic botany and zoology, while some knowledge of elementary geology (or physical geography) is helpful. Agricultural economics and rural sociology are especially mentioned in order that their importance in the training of teachers of agriculture may not be overlooked. Teachers for the high schools, the normal schools, and the colleges of whatever type should pursue at least the general, or foundation, college course in each of these subjects.

We must not omit the necessity of mastering a good writing and speaking ability in the English language on the part of the young teacher in training. A course in agricultural journalism has been found to be a distinct asset. The local and agricultural press is a powerful factor promoting the work in vocational agriculture and no teacher can afford to overlook it.

Teachers of agriculture should not omit an acquaintance with other departments of culture, for they should be as broadly educated as other members of the teaching profession. In accomplishing the work heretofore outlined, at least four collegiate years will be required. To become especially fitted to excel as an agricultural teacher, an additional year's work will be necessary, and this is particularly true with reference to persons who would teach in the agricultural colleges. Indeed, it is probably that the best agricultural colleges will soon insist that the younger members of their faculties shall have a doctor's degree.

4. Administrative and Economic Factors: The administrative factor in teacher training must be considered. Many of these recommended courses are offered in the regular agricultural college curriculums and should be pursued under the professors and in the departments offering them. Where there is a school or college of education in the same institution, the work in general education may be similarly disposed of. For the special courses in agricultural education, there should be a separate department for the training of teachers of agriculture.

The program of studies above outlined is one which very

few, if any, of our agricultural or teachers colleges offer in its entirety. Since this is true, there should be a distinct department to offer those subjects for the training of teachers that may not well be included in departments already established. On the other hand, there is need for the unification and classification of the very diverse materials into workable systems, not for farm practise but for teaching purposes. Because there is a difference of aims in the training of farmers and of teachers, there must be some difference in the courses for the attainment of these aims. The divergence of the courses to be traversed by these two classes of students will be in ratio to the divergency of the ends in view. The curriculum for the agricultural teacher is a sort of shunt from the main line after having traveled with it during a large part of its course, and after separation, still runs parallel with it.

The economic factor is another consideration. Probably the greatest obstacle to the development of the special training of agricultural and other vocational teachers has been the lack of available funds. This, however, was partially removed by the enactment, in 1907, of the Nelson Amendment by the Congress of the United States. This enactment contains a proviso which makes it permissible for the land-grant colleges to devote a part of the twenty-five-thousand dollar increase for their support, to "providing courses for the special preparation of instructors for teaching the elements of agriculture and the mechanic arts."[4]

Several of the land-grant colleges made provisions, more or less adequate, for the training of teachers of agriculture shortly after the enactment of this law, tho it must be confest that funds from this source were not generally devoted to this work in proportion to the urgency of the needs, nor in accordance with the anticipations of those who were instrumental in securing the passage of the law. However, in most states a beginning was soon made; and some of the land-grant colleges encourage the development of the work

[4] See 34 Stat. L. 1281.

by the liberal appropriation of funds, resulting in a few notable developments and accomplishments.

With the enactment of the Smith-Hughes Act in 1917 (No. 347, 64th Congress), ample funds will hereafter be provided in each state accepting its provisions for the training of teachers of agriculture, along with teachers of other vocational subjects.

PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

There are certain personal characteristics that formal training can not impart or correct, but may often modify in some degree. Any proper training of agricultural teachers must take them into account and make provisions accordingly.

Experience has shown that the best teachers of agriculture are reared in the rural districts, tho occasionally, a good one comes from the urban centers. The prospective teacher of agriculture should be rurally minded, should have an enthusiastic faith in rural life, and should be capable of adjusting himself to the peculiar conditions and circumstances of farm life and work.[5]

The student should also show some capacity for leadership, because this is a prime requisite of the vocational teacher. He must be an apt instructor, quick to appreciate difficult circumstances, and possest of versatility and tact capable of surmounting them. He must be of sound health, well balanced mentally, appreciating the requirements of rural social life, and capable of a sympathetic attitude toward those he is to train.[6]

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[5] For a description of these desirable personal qualities, see my book, *Agricultural Education for Teachers*, Chapter IV.

[6] See Hummel's *Materials and Methods in High School Agriculture*, p. 368–9.

VII

A CENTURY OF SCHOPENHAUER[1]

If the shade of Arthur Schopenhauer could revisit the earth to which he gave his chief book, *The World as Will and Idea*, a hundred years ago, he would find much matter to confirm his sardonic outlook on the universe. He would have seen the Napoleonic, world-struggle renewed on a vaster scale, with his own country as protagonist and victim; but he would have read there the same futility of motive, the same agitations, with merely a shuffle of the *rôles*. He would have noted all the tragic elements in his country's downfall, but scarcely, one fancies, with much personal anguish or resentment; for the Prussianized Germany of the last forty years would have been deeply alien to him. Only the wave of Socialist revolution might have shaken his nerves. The pessimist was instinctively conservative, and wooed safe comfort with the assiduity of a domestic cat. What would he have made of the red flag floating on the Schloss in Berlin—he who left his money for the benefit of those who had suffered there in defending the Royal authority during the March days of 1848? Entangled in contradictions, one might imagine him following the Kaiser's flight to Holland, not with the faintest reverence for the Imperial fortunes, but to imitate the life of frugal meditation which Spinoza once raised there to an almost saintly level. It is to be remembered that by ancestry and temperament Schopenhauer was anti-Prussian. His father, the wealthy patrician of Danzig, had left that old free city rather than see it fall under Prussian rule. He christened his son by a name which was the same in English as in German, and it was no fault of his that the philoso-

[1] From the Literary Supplement of the London *Times* for December 5, 1918.

pher was not born an Englishman, so far as a child of German parents could be. Only a fit of home-sickness on the mother's part, leading to a sudden flight in mid-winter back to Germany, decided that her son should see the light in Danzig instead of London. So strangely and deliberately, even before his birth, was the philosopher of renouncement dedicated to a neutral place above the turmoil of men and countries.

Yet, detached and fated to detachment as he was, there is no thinker whom we less imagine as dry and abstracted. Ordinary people have read him when they would not glance at any other philosopher. As the prophet of pessimism, speaking out and endorsing the revolt which we all feel by moments against our own lot and the world's, he was sure of a success of curiosity; but perhaps the true reason why men read him is because they recognize him to be a man of like passions with themselves. Even while he shows the tyranny of passion and exhorts us to disillusion, we can see that he has understood the moods of feeling and never turned his back on life to become a hermit of the study. Has he not been called the philosopher of every novelist's heroine? That ironic view of him is familiar, but what is not so well known is that Schopenhauer anticipated it himself. In the preface to *The World as Will and Idea* he says a disappointed purchaser can always, as a last resort, lay the volume on the table of some learned lady friend. The book over which he jested grimly, with the comment that hardly any page of life can be too serious to have its jest, had an appropriately stormy birth. It came out after a dispute behind the scenes in which Schopenhauer taxed his publisher with dishonesty and was met by the retort that his language was like a cabman's. Then a silence closed round him, as afterwards it closed around Nietzsche. He had defied the professional thinkers, and they ostracized him in return. His tremendous onslaught on complacency fell back without an echo from the padded walls. To us, who know how his book became a Bible of European pessimisn, how his name has past into a proverb

and his writings have swayed men's lives, it is a surprize to find that for a long time he had no adherents save a stray lawyer or journalist, or—oddest of all— some Prussian officers in want of an occupation for peace-time.

Contact with Schopenhauer has always meant a personal experience. Nietzsche describes "the first, almost physiological, impression made upon me by Schopenhauer, the magical emanation of inner force from one plant of nature to another, that follows the slightest contact." You feel yourself, for good or evil, in the presence of a man. Presently you see why the recognition has been easy, and why it deepens till the very tones of the writer can be almost heard. It is because his theme is, after all, so simple. All he intends, as he remarks himself, is to impart a single thought. That one thought is resumed and repeated, developed with a hundred variations, and freshly illuminated as one of its facets after another catches the light, but its identity persists until you are obliged to recognize that the thought is Schopenhauer. There he differs from the majority of philosophers. His fabric is not built in a way to keep you out, but to let you in.

It may not be the final road to truth, but it is certainly the easiest. Other thinkers have let their gaze take in the whole vast field, admitting loyally the myriad aspects of the universe, qualifying first impressions and recognizing the need to account for all. They have fashioned systems instead of a monument to one idea. So we respect them, not simply because their fabrics are large and complicated, but because they meet our demand that everything should have its place. Yet systems have their disabilities, and it is practically impossible for one thinker to do justice to the whole. Croce, for instance, while he rears that splendid triple edifice of his Logic, Ethic and Aesthetic, denies an existence to metaphysics and religion. Even when the building touches completeness a harrowing doubt invades our minds. Is it possible that the whole erection may be lifeless after all—a house of cards that will crumble to the touch, or worse still, a block of masonry with nothing in-

side it? At this moment Schopenhauer, the tempter, takes possession of us. There is no need to grope round the doors, he declares; he has the pass-key and if we care to use it we shall be free of all the building. We shall find that a spirit lurked there; but it is so infinitely more potent than its surroundings that their solidity was delusive after all.

The key did not bring happiness, and yet it has been largely used. How much is it worth to us after a hundred years? "Not to my contemporaries, not to my compatriots," wrote Schopenhauer, "to mankind I commit my now completed work in the confidence that it will not be without value for them, even if this should be late recognized, as is commonly the lot of what is good." It is one of those fine passages in which he shakes himself free of all the clumsiness of German prose. Yet the result of the appeal, we are inclined to say, must go against him. Clearly the world as a whole has left his teaching on one side. The spectacle of the great war might be taken, as one thinks Schopenhauer himself would have taken it, for a supreme manifestation of the self-assertive will. But we must be careful how we estimate his influence. He spurned the idea of a practical philosophy, and he did not care about a conversion of the multitude. Tho he has been read by the many, he wrote for the few. The only beings to whom he holds out a hope of satisfaction are the artist and the sage. The good man, indeed, is relatively emancipated, but the value of his achievement is as a stepping-stone to sainthood. It would hardly be fair, therefore, to Schopenhauer to estimate his influence by the method of counting heads.

His chief book has a paradoxical effect on readers who are well aware of his pessimism but have encountered it, as it were, by snatches, in the essays where he has his fling against major and minor vexations. They turn the pages with a mental query as to what has become of the pessimist. Only at the climax of the argument does Schopenhauer disclose his whole hand, with a stroke of dramatic art that betrays a master. The impression does not fail and is visibly the

culmination of his thought, and yet the effect is more exhilarating than depressing. Instead of presenting life as the sorry business which he usually exposes, he has turned it into an exciting tragedy. Writing in youth—for he was barely thirty—he is still on the mountain tops, above the vapors of his too sensitive existence. His genius also has involuntarily confessed itself. He is the artist-philosopher and he has unrolled on the way a magical picture of the world on its esthetic side. It can still be a paradise for the artist and the lover of beauty. All things are beautiful if you can lay aside the torment of the will and lose yourself in contemplating them. It is true that these objects mirror the same will which works in you, and because of this you understand them; but the boon of art is that it can suspend the painful struggle and extract beauty instead of discord from the images of the will it sees. The wheel of Ixion stands still; "we keep the Sabbath of the penal servitude of willing." But if the world which seemed horrible in action becomes thus beautiful and desirable for knowledge, it can not have been wholly bad. One leans to the conclusion that even if it is the artist's will, as Schopenhauer is fond of saying, which has borne the whole cost of the production of the play, the play has been amply worth it.

The impression lingers on finishing his pages. A still deeper imprint is left by his profound sense of the oneness of all living things. It was strengthened in him by the Indian philosophy which he unearthed, as if by instinct, from a roundabout translation and made current in European thought. He pictures this unity in the Indian manner by imagining a procession of all things, animate and inanimate, under the eyes of the spectator, who is reminded before each, "This art thou." The identity of all things is consistent with his theory of the ubiquitous will; and the Buddhist sages inferred, as he did, that the best thing to do with a life of torment was to renounce it. It was a forlorn hope to offer this solution to Western minds. Before Schopenhauer's eloquent demonstration that the sufferer and the inflicter of suffering are one, they will ask whether we

could recognize this community, and act on it up to the extreme limits of altruism and self-denial, if life's ultimate reality were an incorrigible will. The data might be held to point rather to a supreme creative consciousness, out of which we came and into which we may return. Schopenhauer staked his view on the priority of will over knowledge, but in the end he has to qualify it. His saint or sage reaches a pinnacle where he can turn and deny the will. He "sees thru" the illusive barriers which divide our egoisms and even our individualities from each other. The philosopher himself confesses that this freedom does not come from the will, but from a changed form of knowledge. The "will-in-itself," therefore, is not the last word of philosophy. And if it can be overthrown in the end by a higher consciousness or knowledge, one may wonder whether it was entitled to the supremacy he gave it in the beginning.

Why did he not advance from that creative moment, instead of falling back into the bondage of his single thought? The reason lay, no doubt, in his temperament and character. The pessimist's starting-point, according to Guyau, is the *sentiment de son impuissance*. Acquaintance with Schopenhauer soon reveals his fondness for the negative, and this was something more than a mere play of mind. Quite early in life human dispositions seem to divide into two classes; one courts the risk of adventures, while the other is bent on the avoidance of pain. Schopenhauer is of the latter company. Punctilious and combative enough on behalf of his rights, it is not in life's contest that he looks for adventures. He prefers to stay where he is, forewarned, as it were, against impulse and desire. He is exactly of Pascal's opinion, that all man's troubles arise from his not being able to keep quiet in a room. That is why he tells us that our life is a struggle between want and *ennui*, that all happiness is negative and pleasure is only the avoidance of pain. Evil is the positive thing; it makes its existence felt. Therefore the solution of the painful riddle, for those who achieve it, can be only nothingness. "No will; no idea, no world."

He gave a strong impulse to the current of nihilism, and his influence might be read in many a page of Continental literature, and in many obscure lives; yet he was not the inventor of pessimism, "Une femme voilée est en chemin depuis la naissance du monde; elle se nomme la Mélancholie." But the spirit of the age, or, as he might have said, the nisus of the will, has turned against him. Nietzsche, the disciple and the apostate, shows this reaction in all its liveliness. We are driven to the paradox that, while Schopenhauer will always be remembered as a pessimist, it is not his pessimism which most survives in thought. A seer by his nature, susceptible to vision and eager to render his sense of what he saw, he has left his chief traces on the contemplative side. Here he might be matched with Wordsworth, whose "harvest of a quiet eye" he echoes in so many a passage. He had the secret of esthetic contemplation. He may not have been the first to see that it was the essence of art to leave behind all practical or interested motives, but he stated it with a luminous power which made it unforgetable. Nor has his message of contemplation stopt there. The mystics became his pattern in the end, scornful tho he was of special illuminations. He prest the Christian mystics into his theory; but he was more at home with the sages of India, and if their wisdom now finds a ready ear among us, it was he who first proclaimed it the way of salvation. To read a book where these influences can be felt, like Edward Carpenter's *Art of Creation*, is to be reminded at every turn of the Schopenhaueran *motif* that sympathy and expression have their source in a primal unity of being.

Schopenhauer is entirely in tune with the modern tendency to dethrone the abstract reason, for he emphasized both will and intuition at its expense. He preceded Bergson in dwelling on the humble, practical origins of reason, and on its incapacity, even in the end, to tell us about anything but the outside of things. His will-in-itself is not without likeness to the *élan vital;* and his direct form of knowledge, which penetrates reality, approaches Bergson's

ideal of intuition. But Schopenhauer's whole conception was built on more terrific lines. He rolls into one vast entity the self-preserving instinct, the cosmic process, and the selfish human will. To the eye of science his picture must seem largely mythical; and as Schopenhauer's disdain for men of science was only surpast by his contempt for salaried philosophers, he would not greatly mind. None the less he would have fastened with avidity on all the body of new knowledge which has gone to determine man's place in nature, and on every instance which could be construed to show tendency flickering towards the dawn of will.

On the watch always for signs of corroboration, and with a singular *flair* for making use of them, he would have hailed most eagerly, perhaps, a work of art like *The Dynasts*, presenting a great epoch as a drama of the immanent will. And with his decided preference of art to history, he would have revelled not less in the Wessex novels, for in the breasts of Jude and Henchard the power which impels is also the power which destroys. He had himself made a romance in his philosophy. There lay the irony, that he, who commends an ideal of pure will-less knowing, should have steeped his thought in all the colors of his personal life. It shows that we are right, after all, in remembering him as the great pessimist, even if it is the other elements in his thought which have most survived in ours. For optimism and pessimism are not so much philosophies as the reflections of two temperaments thrown across the world. Personal as all thinking is in its first impulse, these types of it, we feel, are "all too human." Schopenhauer embodied one of them with extraordinary completeness. So large was his mastery that he himself became a type, as one who had rendered "the weariness, the fever, and the fret" in a great prose drama of philosophy.

VIII

REVIEWS

The Curriculum—By FRANKLIN BOBBITT. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1918. 295 pages. $1.50.

The Curriculum is composed of six parts or divisions of twenty-one chapters and an index. Part I. Ends and Processes, covering six chapters as follows: 1. Two Levels of Educational Experience; 2. Educational Experience upon the Play-Level; 3. Educational Experience upon the Work-Level; 4. The Place of Ideas in Work-Experience; 5. Where Education Can Be Accomplished; 6. Scientific Method in Curriculum-Making. Part II. Training for Occupational Efficiency, of four chapters, namely: 7. Purposes of Vocational Training; 8. Specialized Technical Training; 9. The Specialized Training of Group-Workers; 10. Social Aspects of Occupational Training. Part III. Education for Citizenship, three chapters as follows: 11. The Nature of the Good Citizen; 12. The Development of Enlightened Large-Group Consciousness; 13. Moral and Religious Education. Part IV. Education for Physical Efficiency, three chapters: 14. The Fundamental Task of Physical Training; 15. Physical Training; 16. The Social Factors of Physical Efficiency. Part V. Education for Leisure Occupations, two chapters: 17. The Function of Play in Human Life; 18. Reading as a Leisure Occupation. Part IV. Education for Social Intercommunication, three chapters: 19. The Mother-Tongue; 20. Training in Foreign Languages; 21. Some Concluding Considerations.

The book is a step in advance of the socialization of education, is well written, tho at times somewhat tedious, and expresses in words the best thought of educators in vitalizing and democratizing education. It aims to present the underlying philosophy of curriculum-making based on

human experience, community needs and interests, and the natural functioning and growth of the individual thru sharing in the responsibilities and rewards of community life and welfare. It does not outline or discuss the essential subjects of the curriculum except as they arise thru the scientific study of the fundamentals in curriculum-making. The curriculum is considered from the standpoint of human interests, possibilities, and needs; a growth resulting from human experiences and changing from time to time in response to vital needs of society and the larger whole of humanity. It is sane, clear, thoughtful, and in harmony with the best thought on the future reorganization of education.

Probably no one will completely agree with the author in all the generalizations and conclusions, nevertheless it is stimulating and provocative of thought to one who has not lost the function of thinking. Progressive educators, tired of shams and little men in big places, will appreciate its value and recognize the sanity and good judgment of the author in most of his positions concerning the progressive development of education from lower selfish to higher humanistic levels. The book is not meant for the casual reader, there is too much to be supplied by the mind of the reader; but the true student of education, especially if he finds himself clothed with authority, will find it full of advanced thought and helpful suggestions. Its contents will be appreciated by every thoughtful superintendent and genuine human welfare worker. It will find a welcome place in the libraries of the new education. The times call for many more such books to give intellectual sanity to the reorganization of education made possible thru the results of the world war.

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Studies in the History of Ideas—Edited by the DEPARTMENT OF PHILOSOPHY OF COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY. Columbia University Press. New York. 1918. 271 p. $2.00.

It is really capital, in the presence of so much contemporaneity in the realm of print, to come upon a book which

reminds us that, after all, there is a kind of consecutive program in the march of human events. The world of action is also a world of ideas, and, as it happens, mainly of ideas handed on to us out of the past. We add our bit, in the way of experience, in the way of reflection upon our experiences, to the thoughts which we have learned from our fathers; and this is what we call modernity. But we rarely revolutionize old modes of thinking and we never substitute new ones *in toto:* if in one sense the matter of history is change, in quite another it is conservation, and indeed the only recognizable conservation. Therefore it is that the old wisdom, grown out of the former experiences of mankind, is never outgrown, but is a perennially fresh invigoration of the new.

Such a notion of the undying value of history prompts this new Columbia contribution to the history of ideas, which expresses, as the editors say, "the desire of those who are or have been identified with work in philosophy at Columbia to encourage research and the exercise of the historical imagination, and to contribute something to the work being done in this department of human interest." Further, since "ideas have a history . . . influenced by contact with lines of experience not commonly called philosophical," we may anticipate of future volumes in the series (for Volume I is unimpeachably philosophical) contributions touching the whole complex variety of thought-giving life. Such a program ought to prove valuable in two-fold wise: to philosophers, in reminding them of the broad range of facts that generate their problems; to others, in emphasizing that the last and lasting significance of any fact is the idea it shapes.

The thirteen studies which make up the contents of the book fall into three groups. The initial three are in the domain of Greek philosophy; then follow eight dealing with thinkers of the Renaissance and Enlightenment; lastly, two papers in logic, which, however (as logic always must), hark back to Greek notions. Taking the contents by and large, it is interesting to note the judicious absence of any

concern with German thinkers. Descartes and Spinoza each has an essay; for the rest, it is English philosophy in the modern world that receives attention, and in particular Hobbes, with three papers devoted to him. Hobbes' life was cast in troublous times; the crux of his philosophy was its politics; there is, therefore, good reason for reverting in our day to his entirely British mode of lessoning.

Taking the studies *seriatim* (for one can not speak pointedly of such a book in the whole), McClure's Appearance and Reality in Greek Philosophy, with which the volume opens, has for its theme the selective character of Greek philosophy: "There is a reality for immediate experience, a reality for science, a reality for moral and mystical uplift, a reality for logic, a reality . . . . for the man of practical affairs." All of these types appear in Greek thought: which will surely suggest to reflection, what McClure makes his conclusion, that "Reality is a choice of values." Veazie's The Meaning of Φυσις in Early Greek Philosophy substantiates with convincing evidence the idea advanced by Professor Woodbridge that Φυσις is really the power of motion, of change, in things; not a datum of stuff, but an impulsion or potency. The third essay is Bush's too modestly entitled Impression of Greek Political Philosophy, the key to which is his epigram: "The ideals of a people are a function of its experience." Francis Bacon and the History of Philosophy, by Coss, is an exposition of Bacon's understanding of this same idea,—an essay which would have served as an admirable introduction to the whole volume. Follow the three essays on Hobbes, by Dewey, Lord, and Balz, beautifully introduced by Professor Dewey's remark that "earlier doctrines are always getting shoved, as it were, nearer our own day." An analysis of Cartesian epistemology, Truth and Error in Descartes, by Owen, and a criticism of Spinoza's Pantheistic Argument, by Cooley, mark the excursions beyond the British field in modern thought, to which return is made in Woodbridge's Berkeley's Realism (the very title is a challenge), taking as its cue Berkeley's resolution to "side in all things with the

mob"—that is, to rest his metaphysics upon an analysis of that common sense of normal men, which Enlightenment thinkers so thoroly respected. Jones' None on Dr. Thomas Brown's Contribution to Esthetics—anticipative of Santayana's psychological illuminations of esthetics—is the last of the strictly historical papers. It is, however, an historical problem which inspires Montague's wittily writ The Antimony and Logical Theory, and it is in a new and shrewd solution of Zeno's paradoxes that it culminates, —not ends, for Montague's last sentence is worth quoting, for the question which it raises: "A world in which so many things are known thru both reason and sense can not itself be either unknowable, unreasonable, or nonsensical." The question is: By what in reason or sense, by what save intuition, does the writer of these words get the fearful certainty of *can not?* Is possibility so small a thing? Old Problems with New Faces in Recent Logic, with which Costello ends the volume, forms a fitting finale, harking back, in the logical field, to the thesis fairly established in the historical by the first essay of all; and there is besides the sharpness of contemporary application. Which is as should be: for we go to history not to escape the contemporary, but to meet it with a riper wisdom.

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One of the encouraging signs of the times is the return of the old-fashioned Reader of the last generation, which did more for the understanding and appreciation of literature in American schools and homes than any other agency. We specially welcome *The eighth reader in everyday classics*, by Professor Franklin T. Baker and Ashley H. Thorndike, of Columbia University. Both the selections and the quotations are excellent. (New York. The Macmillan Company. 1918. 415 p. 72 c.)

A book of a wholly different type, being an explanation and exposition, is *English literature*, by Herbert Bates, of the Manual Training High School, Brooklyn. It is an excellent

textbook and has good illustrations and well-arranged apparatus for teaching. (New York. Longmans, Green & Company. 1918. 605 p. $1.50.)

A combination of theoretical and practical helpfulness is offered in *Education for character*, by Frank C. Sharp of the University of Wisconsin. (Indianapolis. The Bobbs-Merrill Company. 453 p. $1.25.)

It is a little early to write on the consequences of the world war, but Professor William H. Hobbs has brought together in convincing form the story of the war in his volume entitled *The world war and its consequences*. (New York. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 446 p. $2.50.)

Vocational civics, by Frederick W. Giles and Imogene K. Giles, both Illinois teachers, is a sincere and helpful book of practical counsel, obviously the result of both reflection and experience. (New York. The Macmillan Company. 1919. 251 p. $1.30.)

One of the great needs of the American people, old and young, is a more accurate, as well as a fuller knowledge of fundamental economic facts, principles and laws. To such we commend a careful reading of *The principles of political economy*, by Thomas Nixon Carver, Professor of Political Economy at Harvard University. The volume is more than usually non-technical in character, and both well conceived and well executed. (Boston. Ginn & Company. 1918. 588 p. $1.96.)

A recent review in the New York *Times* by Professor Brander Matthews, of Columbia, of the volume entitled *The higher learning in America*, by Thorstein Veblen, makes it unnecessary to examine this appalling book at any length in these pages. If the author has any knowledge whatsoever of American higher learning and its conduct, he is exceptionally successful in concealing that fact behind a most repellant and uncouth style. Such facts as the book contains are apparently furnished by the author's imagination, and his logical processes are as infantile as his assumptions. (New York. B. W. Huebsch. 1918. 286 p.)

IX

NOTES AND NEWS

Curriculum of the woman's college

The contents of Bulletin 6, series of 1918, of the United States Bureau of Education is an account by Dr. Mabel Louise Robinson, both interesting and informative, of the curriculum of the woman's college. The purpose of the study is to justify the present curriculum of the modern college for women in the light of its historical development, to give the typical requirements for the baccalaureate degree, and to discuss some of the more fundamental conditions of instruction. Five colleges are selected as fair examples of the varieties of the woman's college. These are, to quote the report: Vassar, the oldest of the well-equipt and amply endowed colleges for women in the United States; Wellesley, closely paralleling it in age and rapidity of development; Radcliffe, a pioneer in establishing a college wherein women, without coeducation, could receive instruction from a university for men; Barnard, with a like affiliation with a man's university; and Mount Holyoke, the most important college which developed from seminary beginnings.

Vassar was founded in 1865, but not until 1903 was a curriculum put into practise which in its general premises is the one present in force. The long process of trial and error, continues the report, by which Vassar had sifted out its curriculum, shortened that period for every other woman's college. No other college had the same problem to face that had Vassar in the early sixties, and some of the inherent problems that belong to a college for women had been solved by Vassar once and for all.

Wellesley was opened to students in 1875, ten years after the first collegiate year of Vassar. The college curriculum for a woman's college was no longer a new problem and a general college course was at once offered for which the degree of B.S. was granted.

Radcliffe, it is pointed out, represents an entirely new movement in the education of women. It is different from Vassar and Wellesley in that it had no founder, no endowment, and no early equipment of buildings and grounds—it began its existence, in point of fact, as the report happily phrases it, as a thing of ideas without much corporeal embodiment. Like its predecessors, the English colleges of Newnham and Girton, established for the purpose of giving to women instruction by the University of Cambridge, Radcliffe, altho differentiated from both, was intended to extend to women the university opportunities of Harvard. The entrance examinations in this way were to be the same as those of Harvard, no instruction was to be provided of a lesser grade than that given in Harvard, and the courses were to be identical, altho fewer in number. On this basis work was begun in 1879. In 1894, the governing board of Harvard officially recognized the college and assumed definite relations with its work.

Barnard College, like Radcliffe, was the outcome in the first instance of university provision for an examination on subjects, with no opportunity to study them. A collegiate course which duly qualified women might pursue was begun in 1883, under the general direction of the faculty of Columbia College. According to the regulations, the student admitted on the basis of a preliminary examination to the four years' course was "entirely free as to where and how to pursue her studies." At the completion of the course the degree of A.B. was awarded by Columbia. In 1889, Barnard College was opened with classes in the freshman year under the instruction of officers of Columbia College. In 1890, it was arranged that the new college should have a faculty of its own, with the provision that the professors and instructors comprising it should be approved by the president of Columbia College. Barnard College in this respect differs from Radcliffe, where from the beginning the instruction has been carried on by the faculty of Harvard.

Mount Holyoke was founded as a seminary in 1837. It

maintained a seminary and college curriculum from 1888 to 1893, when it gave up the former and presented to its students a full college curriculum, evolved, it is stated, not so much from a modification of its seminary work as from careful study of the contemporary colleges.

To quote the report, the table of the requirements for the A.B. degree in the five colleges brings out the following points: Mount Holyoke prescribes the largest number of hours of work; Barnard prescribes the least work, and makes it possible by examination to avoid any prescription. Counting out Radcliffe, the other colleges agree in the prescription of the following subjects: English composition, mathematics, Latin or Greek, German or French, philosophy. Wellesley and Mount Holyoke are the only colleges to prescribe Bible. At Vassar and at Wellesley, the unit of time is the hour, *i. e.*, one class appointment a week for a year counts as one hour. Vassar requires 56 hours for the A.B. degree and Wellesley requires 59 hours. At Mount Holyoke, the unit is the semester hour, 120 hours being required for the degree. At Radcliffe the work is arranged in courses and half-courses, which are evaluated regardless of hours by the work actually required, and which count as full or half-courses toward the 17 required for the A.B. degree. At Barnard, the courses are valued in points, the term point signifying one hour a week of class attendance, or two hours in a laboratory, for one-half year, 124 points being required for the A.B. degree.

Vassar, Wellesley and Mount Holyoke, in addition, all grant the degree of master of arts. Radcliffe offers the degrees of master of arts, associate of arts, and doctor of philosophy. Thru their affiliations with Columbia and Harvard, Barnard and Radcliffe offer greater opportunities for specialized and advanced work than do the other colleges.

The report calls attention to the fact that tho the development of the curriculum of the woman's college from year to year seems slow, and the course of study sometimes ap-

pears inpervious to demands for change, a comparison of the present with the early curriculum shows that it has been by no means static, but has grown into a product very different from its original simple form. Whether, it is stated, this growth has been in symmetry, virility, and flexibility, or whether it has been a matter of increase to unwieldly proportions by the process of accretion, is a question worthy of thoughtful consideration.

The growth of the curriculum, it is further stated, has been marked by no particular originality; and the woman's college can not be pointed out as the source of any single tendency in the American college of today. It has, nevertheless, been possibly as startling as any other form of development in the college. It has been most spectacular in the department of history, which either did not exist at all or was of feeble dimensions when the colleges were founded, and which now offers a total of more hours in the five colleges studied than does any other department of study except English. Closely related to history, and growing out of it, is the group of studies including political science, economics, and sociology.

The college woman, it is asserted in the final chapter on "the socialization of the woman's college," has disproved two fallacies, that her place is exclusively in the home, and that her place is exclusively in the schoolroom. Increasingly she has demanded work, and increasingly that work has become more varied in its character. If college women, however, are to continue their efforts and their successes, the college must take upon itself the responsibility not only of making proper provision for the realization of the ideals of general culture, but of providing, as well, the opportunity to select careers, and education which will have some bearing on the successful pursuit of them.

The pamphlet, as a whole, contains the best summarization of the actual educational activities of the woman's college in the United States that has been written. For its statements of fact and its conclusions of result it is worthy of wide consideration, not only by the colleges

themselves, but by the whole public interested in the higher education of women.

Disabled soldiers and sailors

The Federal Bureau of Vocational Education, at Washington, calls attention to the fact that the great difficulty encountered by the government in re-educating disabled soldiers and sailors is to get to them, and to the public, proper information of the opportunities that are offered. It is pointed out that there is an astonishing number of these men, badly handicapt by their injuries, who are endeavoring to work and who should have a knowledge of what the government stands ready to do and is already doing to help them.

Every disabled soldier and sailor, accordingly, it is stated, should be informed that the Government is resolved to do its best to restore him to health, strength, and self-supporting activity.

Until his discharge from hospital care, the medical and surgical treatment necessary to restore him to health and strength, it is emphasized, is under the jurisdiction of the Military or Naval authorities. The vocational training which may be afterwards necessary to restore his self-supporting activity is under the jurisdiction of the Federal Board for Vocational Education. If he needs an artificial limb or other orthopedic or mechanical appliance the Bureau of War-Risk Insurance supplies it free upon his discharge and renews it when considered necessary. If, after his discharge, he again needs medical treatment on account of his disability, the Bureau of War-Risk Insurance supplies it free.

Any man whose disability entitles him to compensation under the War-Risk Insurance Act may be provided by the Federal Board with a course of vocational training for a new occupation, and the Government strongly recommends every man who needs it to undertake such training, and to put himself under the care of the Federal Board, the decision to do so, however, being optional with each man.

If his disability prevents him from returning to employment without training and he elects to follow a course of vocational training provided by the Federal Board, the course will be furnished free of cost, and he will also be paid, as long as the training lasts, a monthly compensation equal to the sum to which he is entitled under the War-Risk Insurance Act, or a sum equal to the pay of his last month of active service, whichever is the greater. In no case will a single man, or a man required by his course of instruction to live apart from his dependents, receive less than $65 per month, exclusive of the sum paid dependents; nor will a man living with his dependents receive less than $75 per month, inclusive of the sum paid to dependents. If his disability does not prevent him from returning to employment without training and he elects to follow a course of vocational training provided by the Federal Board, the course will be furnished free of cost to him, and the compensation provided by the War-Risk Insurance Act will be paid to him, but no allowance will be paid to his family. In addition to the above, the family or dependents of each disabled man will receive from the Government during his period of training the same monthly allotment and allowance as that paid prior to his discharge from the Army or the Navy; and upon completion of his course of training he will continue to receive the compensation prescribed by the War-Risk Insurance Act so long as his disability continues.

In nearly every case, by following the advice and suggestions of the Federal Board, the disabled soldier or sailor can either get rid of the handicap caused by his disability or can acquire new powers to replace any that have been lost; and supposing that he is willing to learn and to take advantage of the opportunities to increase his skill offered him by the Federal Board, he can usually get a better position than he had before entering the service. If he fails, however, to take advantage of these opportunities he will find himself badly handicapt when he is obliged to compete

with the able-bodied men who come back to work after the war.

The Federal Board, it is finally stated, thru its vocational experts will study his particular disability and advise him as to the proper course to pursue and give him free training for the occupation best suited to him, and on the satisfactory completion of his training it will assist him to secure a position. Public authorities and other large employers will undoubtedly, in many cases, give the disabled soldiers and sailors preference when filling vacant positions, provided they possess the training necessary to fill them.

All disabled soldiers, whether in or out of the hospital, should address their communications either to the Federal Board for Vocational Education, Washington, D. C., or to the district office of the Federal Board of the district in which they are located.